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ABSTRACT

This is a collection of conference papers given by graduate students enrolled in a seminar course in Comparative Librarianship. Topics focused on library education and library development programs in foreign countries and Southwest Wisconsin. Professor Philip Altbach opened the conference with a summary version of his paper entitled "Publishing and the Intellectual Systems." The full text of his paper is included along with the following student papers: "Bibliographical Controls and Some Other Indicators of the Status of Librarianship in Ceylon and Pakistan"; "Development of Library Education Programs in the Two Germanies since 1945"; "Comparative Studies: Onions? or the Emperor's New Clothes?" (comments about the characteristics of comparative librarianship); "Indicators of Library Development: Counties of Southwest Wisconsin"; "Indicators of Library Development: Latin America"; and "A Comparison of Jamaican and Puerto Rican Library Development." Figures and statistical data are included in some of the papers. (JPF)

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A SEARCH FOR NEW INSIGHTS IN LIBRARIANSHIP

A DAY OF COMPARATIVE STUDIES

Proceedings of a Conference Held in the Library School
Commons, Helen C. White Hall, University of
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April 25, 1975

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Publishing and the Intellectual "System" 1
Philip G. Altbach

Bibliographical Controls and Some Other Indicators of the Status of Librarianship in Ceylon and Pakistan
Donald Clay Johnson 16

Development of Library Education Programs in the Two Germanies since 1945
Peter Neenan 40

Comparative Studies: Onions? or The Emperor's New Clothes?
William L. Williamson 49

Indicators of Library Development: Counties of Southwest Wisconsin
Larry Gertzog 56

Indicators of Library Development: Latin America
Robert V. Williams 69

A Comparison of Jamaican and Puerto Rican Library Development
Daniel Flores Durán 88

Biographical Notes 105

PREFACE

This volume is an edited version of papers that were presented at a public meeting held on Friday, April 25, 1975 in the Library School Commons. As in 1971, the majority of the students enrolled in Library Science 865, the Seminar in Comparative Librarianship, chose to read their papers at an open meeting.

On this occasion, Professor Philip G. Altbach opened the morning session with a summary version of the paper he has graciously permitted us to publish here. A second outside speaker whom we had hoped to welcome at the afternoon session was prevented by an unavoidable conflict from joining us. In that circumstance, I myself took advantage of the opportunity to make some remarks that reflect concerns that I have begun to feel over the years since 1967, when the Seminar was first offered. Although I do not consider these remarks a complete statement of my views, I hope they may stimulate a discussion that will help those interested in comparative studies in librarianship to make those investigations both less pretentious and more useful than some of them seem to me to have been. In revising my remarks, I have included references to some of the other papers of the day, and I have therefore not included a separate introduction to this volume.

Our thanks go to all of those who assisted in the planning and arrangements for the day. In particular, I wish to thank Professor Charles A. Bunge, who moderated the morning session, and Professor James Krikelas, who served in that way during the afternoon.

W. L. Williamson

PUBLISHING AND THE INTELLECTUAL "SYSTEM"[1]

Philip G. Altbach

Publishing is an integral part of the intellectual and cultural system of any country. This system includes such diverse elements as bookstores, printing establishments, universities, libraries, newspapers, radio, television, and the cinema. In some countries, the intellectual system is highly complex and includes a dense assortment of institutions and agencies with large mass audiences. In others, the system is rudimentary and limited to a small educated minority. There is also an international aspect to the intellectual system which includes the import and export of books and other mass media, copyright arrangements, and translations. Publishing is only a small part of the intellectual system in most nations, particularly those which are highly industrialized and have a variety of accessible alternatives to books. Publishers compete with the mass media--particularly television--for attention and for a share of the financial returns on the cultural product. Publishing is part of a complex system of institutions and relationships which are rapidly changing in a world of speedy technological development. The purpose of this article is to examine the publishing industry and the way it fits into increasingly complex international networks which oversee the development of intellectual 'products' for a society.

Since we are primarily concerned with intellectual or knowledge distribution systems, we will focus mainly on scholarly books--volumes which contribute to the total store of knowledge in a culture or to the advancement of such knowledge. Thus, we are concerned primarily with studies in the sciences, social sciences, and humanities, with textbooks, particularly at the post-secondary levels, and with belles lettres. We will not consider popular fiction, comic books, or most other elements of mass culture. This latter material is very important to any society, but is beyond the scope of this article.[2]

Books are not the only means of advancing the 'high culture' of a society. Indeed, traditional 'printed' media are increasingly being supplemented by television and other forms of mass communications as educational and cultural media. Many cultural figures argue that the novel and poetry have moved from the center of the creative arts and have been replaced, in part, by film as a medium of expression. Although books no longer hold a monopoly on cultural diffusion, they remain central to the development and distribution of knowledge. Because scholarly works are now one of the most important elements of the book market in terms of contributing to culture and technology, they are the focus of this article.

An ancillary to books are journals and magazines. This is especially true for scholarly materials, where journals are a primary means of introducing new material to specialized readers. Journals also review books and thus are a means of publicizing and criticizing research and analysis. Because of their frequent publication and fairly modest cost of production, journals have the advantage of presenting materials quickly and economically to a specific audience.

Despite challenges from other mass media, rising costs, and inherent difficulties of production and distribution, books remain one of the most important means of intellectual communication and continue to be at the center of the intellectual'system' of most societies. This is perhaps even more true of nations which are not as technologically advanced as the United States or Western Europe.

The Intellectual System

Books are not published in a vacuum. Publishing is affected directly by many social, economic, and political elements and by both national and international conditions and trends. The publishing firm is bounded by the physical constraints of production and distribution--for example, labor and transportation, availability of outlets, printing presses, and the cost of paper. The publishing firm must also cope with the complexity of creative and scholarly networks--discovering new talent, pioneering fresh fields, judging the quality and salability of manuscripts, arranging for editing, working out relationships with individual authors. The publisher is also very much affected by broader social conditions. The nature of the educational system, the condition of libraries and other book purchasing institutions, the rate of literacy in the population, the accessibility of alternative media all influence publishing. Publishing is vitally important to the intellectual system, but it is only a part of a complex network.

The complexity of the intellectual system depends very much on the society of which it is a part. But in almost all countries the system is complicated and diffuse. The following figure diagrams some of the agencies and institutions necessary to bring a book from an author to the reading public.

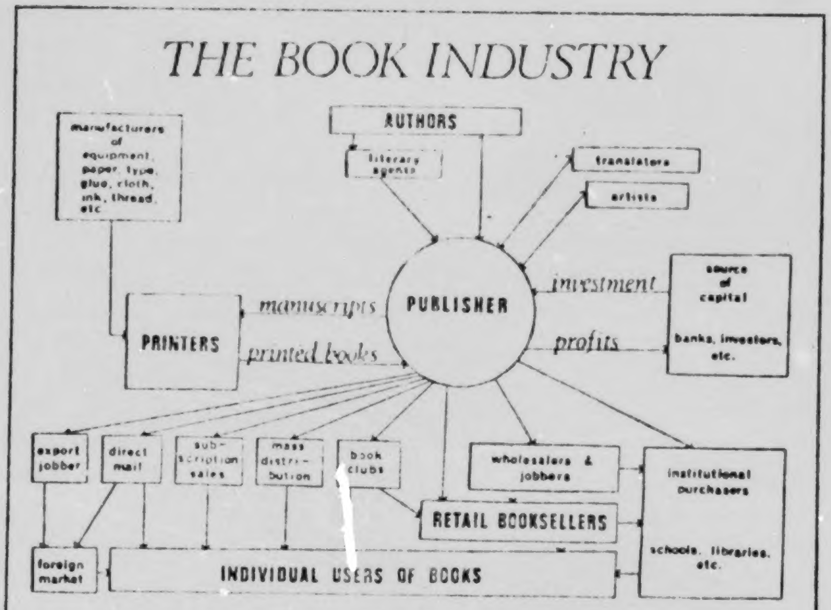

FIGURE 1

Source: Datus Smith, Jr., A Guide to Book Publishing. (New York: Bowker, 1966), p. 17.

The educational system is a key consumer of printed materials. In the United States, at least 30% of all books sold are textbooks. An additional 11% go to libraries, and many libraries are connected with schools and colleges. Elementary and secondary school texts alone account for 16% of book sales.[3] In many developing countries, the proportion of books sold to educational institutions is even higher, because relatively few individuals can afford to purchase books, and channels of retail book distribution are generally inadequate. It has been estimated that more than 90% of book sales in India are made to institutions--mostly schools, colleges, and libraries. In recent years, as university enrollments have risen dramatically in most countries, the market for textbooks at the post-secondary level has also become an important aspect of the publishing equation.

In many respects, the textbook market is the 'tail that wags the dog' in the publishing industry; a very large part of a publishers' stable income comes from textbooks. Textbooks permit large printings and fairly steady sales over the years. Distribution is relatively easy because the educational institutions--whether at the request of individual professors or curriculum experts--act as the middleman between the publisher and the public (in this case the students). Moreover, textbooks are guaranteed an audience. And in many countries the discount allowed on textbooks is small, thereby allowing publishers maximum profits. It is probably fair to say that without the educational market for books, many publishers could not survive without outside subsidy or control.

Little is known of the ways in which textbooks are selected, or about their authors. For the most part, textbooks are not written by the most outstanding authors and although publishing houses often place considerable editorial stress on producing well-written and saleable textbooks, standards in many countries, including the United States, are not outstandingly high.[4] Textbook selection processes remain something of a mystery. In a process involving professors, curriculum experts, publishers, editors, and perhaps others, relevant topics are identified, and become major areas for textbook emphasis. In the United States, college and university texts in such areas as black studies, student protest, 'alternative' education and other fields are stressed for a short time and quickly lose their popularity. Competition for textbook adoption in the U.S. is sharp, and many alternative books often exist for a single field. The advantage of the American system is that new books are quickly published that reflect current curricular trends. Publishers are eager to meet new curricular demands or to present books which are centered around new teaching materials because more sales are involved. In fact, many textbooks are commissioned by publishers. They identify areas of current curricular concern and solicit authors to prepare texts in academically popular fields where materials are lacking.

In many other countries, where textbook production is less competitive or in the hands of centralized agencies, books are often less responsive to changing needs. In many of the developing countries, and of course in the Socialist countries, textbook publishing is in the hands of government agencies, which have control over both decisions about what is published and the means of production.

Libraries constitute another key market for books. In the United States the direct library market is about 11% of the total.[5] In developing countries, the library market often constitutes an even larger proportion of the total book market. Libraries are particularly important for certain types of books. For example, about 80% of the children's books published in the United States are purchased by libraries. Scholarly books are also very dependent on libraries. In the U.S., well over half of the books published by university presses are sold to libraries, and some observers estimate that the proportion is as high as 80%. In a Third World country like India, library sales of scholarly books are about 80 to 90%. Without library sales, it would be virtually impossible to publish scholarly books. With current cutbacks in library budgets in the United States, and rising costs for books and especially for periodicals, it is becoming increasingly difficult for libraries to purchase as many current and scholarly books as in the past.

The existence of journals, book reviewing media, bibliographies, and other ancillary materials is quite important to publishing and can greatly facilitate the distribution of books and help to create a general 'book consciousness' in a society. In addition to acting as an independent outlet for intellectual work, magazines and journals provide a medium for advertising books, and perhaps more important, are the key means of reviewing books. Book reviews are very important for a number of reasons. Reviews publicize books and provide useful information and analysis to potential book buyers. Further, reviews contribute to good authorship by criticizing books and subjecting them to public scrutiny. This kind of scrutiny contributes to high levels of intellectual attainment. Many countries do not have adequate book reviewing media, and this is especially the case for general books.[6] At the level of popular mass market books, book reviews in newspapers can contribute to book sales. But in many countries, newspapers do not feature many book reviews.

Bibliographic tools are also an important element of the publishing infrastructure. It is necessary to know about the existence of a book in order to purchase it, and full information concerning its availability and price is also necessary. While most industrialized countries are reasonably well provided for in terms of national bibliographies, book trade journals, and other means of information, many countries are less well endowed in this respect, and the book trade suffers as a result. Such elements as book reviewing media and bibliographies are small matters, but they are an integral part of the intellectual system which supports publishing. If they are inadequate, the entire publishing enterprise is weaker.

The rate of literacy in a society is a key variable with regard to publishing. While most industrialized nations have nearly universal literacy and levels of schooling are quite high, these countries are in a minority in the world. Low literacy rates characterize many Third World nations. Furthermore, even the minority of individuals who are literate often cannot afford to purchase books. Consequently, book sales are limited, and the publishing enterprise is constricted. In a sense, many Third World publishers are serving only the tiny minority of their populations that is literate and can afford to buy books. A small audience means limited and costly printings; high costs means books are available to fewer people. A vicious circle of restricted publishing is created. As a result of these and other factors, the growth of publishing in developing countries has been slow, and intellectual life, the educational system, and other elements of society have suffered.[7]

In addition to literacy, language is often an important issue in publishing. While seldom considered in such linguistically homogeneous nations as the United States, Britain, France, or West Germany, language is a key intellectual, educational, and even political problem in many countries. Particularly acute in the Third World, language is also an issue in such industralized nations as Belgium, Canada, Yugoslavia, and the Soviet Union. Some countries have competing languages which are used by large minorities of the population. This situation often leads to political strife and conflict, and of course to a bifurcation of the market for books and to divisiveness in the educational system.

Another aspect of the language problem concerns Third World countries which continue to use a European language for educational, scientific, and often commercial purposes despite the fact that this language is spoken by only a small minority of the total population. This situation has implications for many aspects of a society, including levels of political participation, and prospects for democracy. For education and publishing, the continued use of a 'foreign' language which is known by only a small proportion of the population (about 2% of India's population is literate in English, but about half of the books are published in English) necessarily limits the circulation of books and circumscribes the market considerably. Typically, books about politics, science, and technology, and other 'intellectual' subjects continue to be written in the European language even after some changes in the linguistic situation begin to occur. Despite the coming of independence and a sense of nationalism in most Third World countries, reliance on written materials in European languages continues to be widespread. Some efforts have been made to establish journals, publish books, and in general to create a modern intellectual life in indigenous languages, but progress has been slow. Even Indonesia, which has been particularly active in stressing the use of Bahasa Indonesia as the national language, continues to rely on books from abroad for the higher levels of its educational system.

Publishing also has an international context. Publishers, particularly in the industrialized nations which use a 'world' language, export large quantities of books. Books are also frequently translated from one language to another. The transmission of written materials is a key aspect of intellectual life, and the availability of books to an international audience is a key element in the international circulation of ideas and technology. Questions of access to books, of the costs of obtaining permission to translate books, of copyright, of commercial arrangements across frontiers are all important to publishers, and, indirectly, to intellectual life.

In general, the industrialized nations which use a 'world' language dominate the flow of books, and to considerable extent the flow of knowledge and ideas as well. In a sense, these nations, especially the United States, Britain, France and to a lesser extent West Germany, Spain, and the Soviet Union, constitute the intellectual 'centers' of the world. Most other nations and particularly the Third World, are the 'periphery,' and are dependent to varying degrees on knowledge, and often books, produced at the 'center.'[8] There are some exceptions, such as the smaller highly literate nations like Japan, Sweden, Holland, and Czechoslovakia. The widespread use of books from abroad has implications for local publishing industries, for the growth of authorship, and indeed for the basic intellectual life of a nation. Without an indigenous publishing enterprise, a nation is doomed to 'provincial' status and will continue to be dependent on outside elements for its intellectual sustenance. The existence of a publishing enterprise will not guarantee an active intellectual life but publishing is a necessary condition for indigenous scientific and literary activity.

Copyright is a key issue which has international ramifications. Most countries abide by one of the major copyright agreements, and publishers attempt to protect their own interests and those of authors through copyright. Copyright arrangements, however, work in the interests of the major publishing countries and to the detriment of the developing nations.[9] After much discussion and controversy, there have been some changes in these agreements which permit developing countries to reprint educational and scientific materials more freely.[10] Copyright regulations control intellectual traffic, and their nature has widespread indirect implications for the shape of the international publishing community.

This discussion has outlined some of the key elements of the intellectual system as it affects publishing. It is not possible in the context of this discussion to evaluate the weights of these, and other, elements in the system. But it is clear that publishing is very much enmeshed in a complex system which extends far beyond the doors of the publishing house. With this broader discussion, it is possible to turn to a more detailed consideration of the internal aspects of publishing.

The Role of the Publisher

Most simply, the publisher is a coordinator of the processes by which a book is produced.[11] This coordination, however, requires considerable expertise, and the manipulation of many diverse economic, administrative, and intellectual factors. A publisher must understand enough about the market for books so that he produces the kinds of books which will be purchased. This is even the case for non-profit publishers such as university presses. Such publishers need not make a profit, but at the same time they must meet expenses so they cannot issue books which have no attraction even to a scholarly audience. In addition to economic awareness, the publisher must be familiar with the world of arts and letters, science, and social science and make sure he has hired an editorial staff competent to work in these different areas. Judgments about quality, value, and salability of a manuscript must constantly be made.

The publisher must also understand how his product will reach the hands of the intended consumers; he must know the mechanics of the distribution system. The publisher has many roles in an enterprise which is complicated and unpredictable. Even in the best of circumstances, the publishing of 'serious' books is a financially marginal operation.

Lewis Coser has pointed out that the publisher is a "gatekeeper" of knowledge.[12] By virtue of his control over what appears in print, the publisher exercises considerable power. Control over access to information and over one of the means of distribution of knowledge is of considerable importance to any society. In most industrialized societies, this control is fairly diffuse and this permits a fairly wide range of material to get published. Commercial publishers must decide whether a given manuscript has the potential to recoup the investment made on it and hopefully to make a profit. University presses must carefully weigh the scholarly merit of a particular manuscript against its sales potential. If the sales potential is too limited, even the highest quality of manuscript can seldom be published. The means for determining the 'marketability' of a particular book is very unsophisticated.[13] Publishing firms are among the few businesses which rely very little on market research. Thus, the gatekeeping function is often a matter of guesswork. In the case of the university presses, committees of established scholars decide on whether to publish a manuscript. Such a process maintains an acceptable level of quality, but tends to prevent avant garde or academically unpopular books from being published by the University presses.

It is important to note that established publishers, academic or commercial, do not always meet their responsibility to bring important new knowledge to the attention of the public. This is particularly the case when highly controversial materials are involved. In such instances, very small publishers are often willing to take the risk of publishing, or authors occasionally engage in self-publishing. A number of writers who later achieved great fame, such as James Joyce, Upton Sinclair, Emma Goldman, and others were forced to publish their own books because no "reputable" firm was willing to issue them.[14] In countries where there is overt censorship by political, religious or other authorities the situation is, of course, very much more difficult.

Publishing is in part a sales enterprise. Most publishers pay considerable attention to the publicity and distribution of their books. "Selling" in the publishing world is often of a fairly genteel nature. Advertisements in appropriate newspapers and journals and direct mail campaigns are means of making information about books available. Specialized books are advertised in academic journals. Publishers try to have their books reviewed in appropriate media, feeling that independent reviews will help sell books. All of these efforts assume that the journals, mailing lists, book reviewers, book trade publications, and other media exist. Most industrialized nations are endowed with the basic book trade publicity mechanisms, but the situation in Third World nations is much less favorable.

A final yet quite important aspect in the distribution chain for books is the bookseller. While publishers have little direct control over bookselling, their policies with regard to discounts, returns, and other factors directly affect the bookseller. Bookstores in many countries are inadequate in quality and there are too few of them. In many countries, bookstores are located in metropolitan areas and in intellectual centers, with little spread elsewhere.[15] In a sense, the 'center-periphery' situation discussed earlier with regard to nations also functions within countries, with large parts of most countries virtually cut off from exposure to current books on serious and scholarly topics.

Book publishing remains one of the elements of communications in an increasingly diversified society which does not require large amounts of money. Successful long term publishing does demand considerable capital and business enterprise, but it is possible to enter publishing on a small scale and have the possibility of success. It has been estimated that it takes about $15,000 to produce a single scholarly title.[16] As a result of the economic reality of publishing, there are a large number of publishing firms in most industrialized nations, representing many diverse cultural, political, and other interests. Even in Third World nations, it is easier to start a publishing firm than a newspaper. Although it is relatively easy to start a publishing firm, it is more difficult to sustain an active publishing program, and even more difficult to earn a profit from publishing. This is particularly true for 'scholarly' books, which have a limited sales potential and which are often difficult to market.

The summary of the role of the publisher by no means does justice to what is a complex undertaking. A publisher is a businessman, an intellectual, a publicity agent, a grammarian, and hopefully in the long run a teacher. The publisher is a "gatekeeper" who has considerable control over the kinds of knowledge that are available in a society.[17] The importance of publishing is perhaps exemplified in authoritarian societies, which make major efforts to control what is published, and often destroy books considered 'subversive' of public order or the approved ideology.

The "Crisis" of Publishing

In the first part of this article, a number of the fairly "constant" variables affecting publishing were discussed. These factors tend to affect publishers, and intellectual life generally, in a consistent predictable manner. Literacy rates rise only slowly, and the basic purchasing power of a population will rise (or fall) fairly slowly. However, publishing is presently faced with a series of unpredicted 'crises; which will affect its ability to serve the intellectual needs of most countries in the future. It is the purpose of this concluding section to highlight some of these problems.

Perhaps the most serious problem affecting publishers is economic. The economic situation affects publishing in a number of ways. Basically, publishers are faced with a cost-price squeeze that threatens to price many kinds of books out of the market. This is particularly the case for scholarly books, which usually have a fairly high price because of small printings, and 'quality' paperbacks, which find fewer buyers at high prices. The university presses, which are financially marginal operations in the best of times, have been hardest hit by the inflationary spiral. It is not difficult to understand the cause of the present situation. The cost of paper, for example, has doubled in the United States in the period of a year. In other countries the increase has been larger. Printing ink, labor, and even overhead has increased dramatically in cost. All this has meant that the prices of books go up and that capital expenditures rise dramatically. Books are not a 'necessity' for most people, and when economically pressed, individuals will decrease their purchases of books. The situation is perhaps even more serious in the Third World, where publishing is a marginal enterprise even in prosperous times.

At the same time that the publishers have been faced with inflationary pressures, the main purchasers of scholarly books--libraries and those connected with educational institutions--have been hit with the same crisis. In addition, universities in the United States and in a number of other countries, have been faced with their own special crises--of declining enrollments, political pressures, etc.--and both academic libraries and faculty members have cut down on their purchases of books. Libraries find themselves able to purchase fewer books because individual volumes cost more. And as sales drop for particular titles, printings tend to decline, and thus the retail price of a book rises even more precipitously than the rate of inflation. There is no question that the economic situation is a most serious matter for publishing. Inflation, the crisis in the universities, and severe shortages of materials (particularly paper) have combined to place publishers in an unprecedented crisis.

The proliferation of books has created a problem. American publishers have claimed that there are 'too many books.'[18] Publishers in many countries experienced a considerable boom during the 1960s, when educational systems expanded rapidly and library budgets rose. This boom resulted in an increase in the number of titles published. But the recent constriction of the market for books has made the wide variety of titles more difficult to sell. The competition for sales is very fierce, and in a market which is not growing dramatically, it is increasingly difficult for a publisher to function on an economically viable basis. There is insufficient space in bookstores for the number of new books published, libraries find it difficult to purchase and store the volume of new publications, and readers cannot keep up with the flow. Part of the cause for this situation is the much discussed 'knowledge explosion'--the increase in research on many topics which inevitably led to the production of books, journal articles, and other means of reporting research findings.

Publishing has also seen a specialization of the market for books that has created a number of problems for the industry. This is perhaps especially the case for scholarly books. University presses in the United States print about as many copies of a single title today as they did fifteen or twenty years ago. The number of titles has increased dramatically but the sales per title has not expanded. Number of sales per volume has remained constant despite a doubling in the number of faculty in a little more than a decade. This phenomenon is due largely to the specialization which is endemic in academe--the fact that scholars tend to be 'experts' on smaller and smaller topics, and that scholarly books are increasingly written for more limited audiences. It may be worth noting that the same thing has happened to 'general' magazines in the United States. The demise of Life and Look and the growth of special interest magazines is indicative of a societal trend. Specialization means that the publisher has a small market for some kinds of books, and that rising costs cannot be offset by larger editions.

A new technology that might make it possible to deal with some of these problems--inflated costs, knowledge explosion, extreme specialization coupled with limited audiences--is in the process of development. Although industrialized nations are usually responsible for technological innovations, developing countries are indirectly affected by these changes. New methods of printing and composition, such as photo-offset, computer-based typography, and other innovations are beginning to change the economics of publishing. Publishers are only starting to use the technological innovations which are available. This is particularly true of scholarly publishers, who have been slow to innovate. Entirely new means of information presentation, such as the use of microfiche instead of books printed on paper is another innovation which has potential implications for publishing. "Books" on microfiche can be "printed" on demand very cheaply once the original copy is made. Information can be stored in a very small area, thus potentially revolutionizing the traditional library. The developing countries are only now considering the implications of some of these innovations and offset printing is coming into widespread use in the Third World. The point of these comments is that publishing, as other sectors of the economy, will necessarily have to deal with the impact of technology. Such consideration is at present in its very early stages. Change, however, is inevitable as economic factors price 'traditional books' out of the market, as libraries cannot cope with the bulk of new books and as new technological innovations are perfected.

The implications of photocopying, for example, have widespread relevance for publishing. Discussion of the meaning of copyright in the United States are heated in an era when individuals can make inexpensive photocopies of books and where even libraries share materials through the Xerox process.[19] In Sweden, the principle of royalty payment for the usage of books in libraries was recently established. Methods of providing payment to authors and publishers for the use of their materials or for photocopying books or articles is now under consideration in a number of countries. Many of the traditional notions concerning the production, distribution, and use of books are being called into question by technological innovations. Indeed, the very concept of the 'book' as it has been known since the seventeenth century may be in the process of change.

This discussion of some of the aspects of the crisis of modern book publishing, and particularly the publishing of "serious" works of science, politics, and research brings us back to the original theme of this article. Publishers are part of an intellectual system which consists both of the circulation of ideas and trends in a society and of economic and institutional structures. Publishers are affected not only by intellectual currents but by economic and other factors which have implications for the rest of the society. Inflation, changes in technology, and other matters have direct implications for publishers. Publishers are also affected by the institutional structures of society. The nature of the educational system, of libraries, and of copyright regulations, all have implications for publishing.

Publishers are not powerless ciphers in their social milieu. They have considerable power over the kinds of materials which reach the mainstream of a society. They function as gatekeepers and arbiters of literary taste and culture. There is considerable interaction between editors and authors, and this interaction often shapes the nature of what is published. At the scholarly level, the kinds of books published have implications for the direction of research, for academic careers, and indirectly for currents of intellectual life. What is needed, therefore, is that both publishers and those involved in the intellectual enterprise understand the system which affects the publication of books. This system, often seemingly irrational, is in reality quite complex and related to key elements in the society.

FOOTNOTES

[1] This article is a continuation of the discussion begun in Philip G. Altbach, "Publishing in Developing Countries," International Social Science Journal, 26 (No. 3, 1974), pp 468-473, and in Philip G. Altbach, Indian Publishing in Context, (Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1975). I am indebted to Sheila McVey and John Grove for their comments on an earlier draft. It is being published in the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, September, 1975.

[2] Many of the concepts elaborated in this article are taken from the writings of Edward Shils. See particularly his The Intellectuals and the Powers and Other Essays, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1972). See also Edward Shils, "Intellectuals" in International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, (New York: Macmillan, 1968), Vol. 7, pp. 399-415.

[3] Chandler B. Grannis, "U.S. Book Industry Statistics," Publishers Weekly, 205 (February 4, 1974), p. 58. Statistics are for 1972.

[4] For a general discussion of textbooks in the United States, see "Textbooks" in Encyclopedia of Education, (New York: Macmillan, 1971), Vol. 9, pp. 210-224.

[5] Chandler Grannis, op. cit., p. 58.

[6] It might be noted that the United States has no equivalent to the London Times Literary Supplement, a publication which helps to set literary standards as well as providing coverage of important new books.

[7] For an overview of the book situation in the Third World, see Ronald Barker and Robert Escarpit, The Book Hunger, (Paris: UNESCO, 1973).

[8] See Edward Shils, "Metropolis and Province in the Intellectual Community," in Edward Shils, The Intellectuals and the Powers and Other Essays, op. cit., pp. 355-371.

[9] There are some exceptions to the use of copyright. See for example David Kaser, Book Pirating in Taiwan, (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1969)

[10] *Records of the Conference for Revision of the Universal Copyright Convention*, (Paris: Unesco, 1973). See also N. N. Gidwani, ed., *Copyright: Legalized Piracy?*, (Bombay: Indian Committee for Cultural Freedom, 1968).

[11] See Datus Smith, Jr., *A Guide to Book Publishing*, (New York: Bowker, 1966) for a brief discussion of the roles of the publisher).

[12] Lewis A. Coser, "Publishers as Gatekeepers of Ideas," *Annals of the American Academy of Social and Political Science*, (September, 1975). See also Paul M. Hirsch, "Processing Fads and Fashions: An Organization-Set Analysis of Cultural Industry Systems," *American Journal of Sociology*, 77 (No. 4, 1971), pp. 639-659 for a discussion of the intricacies of publishing and other cultural 'industries.'

[13] Paul M. Hirsch, *op. cit.*, p. 648.

[14] See Sheila McVey, "Publishing in a Developing Country: America in the Nineteenth Century." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, (September, 1975) for some examples of this situation in the United States.

[15] See Edward Shils, "The Bookshop in America," *Daedalus*, (Winter, 1963), pp. 92-104 for a discussion of bookselling in the United States.

[16] Morris Philipson, "What is a University Press Worth?", *Encounter*, 40 (May, 1973), p. 45.

[17] It is probably true that in nations where the 'intellectual infrastructure' is weak the publisher is more important than in countries which have a system of television stations, intellectual journals, newspapers, and other outlets for knowledge.

[18] John Dessauer, "Too Many Books?" *Publishers Weekly*, 206 (September 30, 1974 and October 14, 1974), pp. 24-25 and 32-33.

[19] Barbara Ringer, "The Demonology of Copyright," *Publishers Weekly*, 206 (November 18, 1974), pp. 26-29.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL CONTROLS AND SOME OTHER INDICATORS OF THE STATUS OF LIBRARIANSHIP IN CEYLON AND PAKISTAN, AN ESSAY IN COMPARATIVE LIBRARIANSHIP

Donald Clay Johnson

The process of development that occurs in newly independent countries often is based upon the infrastructure established during colonial times. Of all the empires established during the era of colonialism the largest by far was that of the British. A high degree of standardization of colonial administration evolved in this empire so that what proved to be effective and practical in one colony usually was implemented in many other countries. While the British empire was not designed to promote libraries or librarianship per se, certain aspects of the colonial administration affected potential library growth and if conditions were appropriate could serve as the basis for future library development. Some of these colonial policies were copyright or deposit legislation, albeit motivated more for censorship purposes than bibliographical control, the formation of library clubs, the impetus in varying degrees for education, and even simply the widespread use of English which brought a unifying language to areas that had great linguistic diversity.

Given this commonality of British colonial administration can one presume that two countries located in the same part of the world that received their independence within a year of each other have had parallel library development? This paper investigates bibliographical controls and certain other library indicators to see if Ceylon, or Sri Lanka as it is now known, and Pakistan do exhibit such similar library development.

At first glance it may seem inappropriate to select these two countries since Pakistan has a population almost ten times that of Ceylon. However if one presumes that only literates are concerned with the development of libraries, and divides the population of Pakistan according to its two former wings, which are now the separate countries of Bangladesh and Pakistan, one finds that the literate population of the two Pakistans and Ceylon are not dissimilar. Figure 1 points this out.

Figure 1. Population, literacy rate and literate population of Ceylon and Pakistan

Country	Population	Literacy rate	Literate population
Ceylon	10,590,000	60.0%	6,354,000
East Pakistan	50,840,000	21.5%	8,955,000
West Pakistan	42,880,000	16.3%	5,380,000

Sources: 1961 census of Pakistan and the 1963 sample census of Ceylon.

Certain variables in the populations of each country introduce perspectives for library development. Ceylon is divided linguistically between Sinhala and Tamil speaking peoples and religiously between Hindus and Buddhists. Pakistan while united by religion was divided linguistically and spatially. East Pakistan was linguistically united but separated from multilingual West Pakistan by 1000 miles of Indian territory.

Pakistan was created in 1947 out of the portions of the British Indian Empire that were predominantly Muslim. Since Pakistan was carved out of India certain things could not be incorporated into it, or be moved into it. Thus most of the results of pre 1947 library development in India remained in India, and Pakistan had to start most of its library development from nothing. One example that nicely illustrates this point is the former Imperial Library in Calcutta. Since it was founded before 1947 it had holdings on both Pakistan and India, but with partition it remained in India and became the Indian National Library.

The transition to independence in Ceylon was considerably more easy since Ceylon had always been treated as a unique area by the colonial powers that had dominated her. Thus it had a national museum with an attached library receiving materials under deposit legislation, special libraries serving the need of its plantation agriculture and some other rather promising indicators for library development. Yet as time progressed library development was not to proceed as rapidly as one might have anticipated.

Although the primary concern of this paper is with bibliographical controls for the two countries, three other factors that greatly influence library development will also have to be considered. These factors are library associations, library education programs, and national libraries. They will be considered first in an effort to place the development of bibliographical controls in a better perspective.

LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

The formation of library associations may be looked upon as efforts to bring librarians together to work on projects of mutual interest and concern that individual librarians would not be able to do. Library associations in Pakistan for instance, have been very vocal in attempting to improve the status of librarians, especially financially as the usual salary of librarians is extremely low when one considers the education that they have.

In observing the formation of library associations in the two countries one sees that West Pakistan has had a very different attitude towards library associations than either East Pakistan or Ceylon. Ceylon had no library association until 1960 and only established one then because of a request of the government to have some agency that it might consult with regard to library matters. In response to this request the Ceylon Library Association was formed, and in 1973 it had 1620 members. Since there is no library school in Ceylon and there were in 1967 only 27 librarians who had gotten their professional training in Australia, Canada, Great Britain or the United States [1] the majority of members of the Ceylon Library Association probably do not have professional qualifications.

At the time of Pakistan's formation there was only one library association in the country, the Punjab Library Association, which was founded in 1916 and located in Lahore. This association was expanded in 1949 to become the West Pakistan Library Association and the Punjab Library Association ceased to exist. Previous to 1947 there were of course many librarians who were members of the Indian Library Association.

Since 1947 fifteen library or library related associations have been formed in West Pakistan. Some of them serve all of Pakistan, but most of them were oriented towards West Pakistan and with the formation of Bangladesh now restrict their work to the former West Pakistan. There were only two associations in East Pakistan. Figure 2 gives a chronology of library and library related associations in Pakistan.

These library associations are of three sorts, the national or regional beginning with the West Pakistan Library Association in 1947 and ending with the Pakistan Library Association in 1957, the associations that serve special interests such as the Pakistan Bibliographical Working Group and the Pakistan Association of Special Libraries, and the state or provincial associations, which seem also to reflect particular language groups.

Figure 2. Library and Library-Related Associations in Pakistan, by Year of Founding

Year of founding	Library associations	Library related associations
1949	Karachi Library Assoc. West Pakistan Library Assoc.	
1950		Pakistan Bibliographical Working Group
1955	East Pakistan Library Assoc.	
1957	Pakistan Library Assoc.	Karachi University Library Science Alumni Assoc. Pakistan National Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre (PANSDOC)
1958		UNESCO Regional Centre for Reading Materials in Asia
1960		Society for the Promotion and Improvement of Libraries
1961	Federal Library Assoc.	
1962		National Book Centre
1968		Pakistan Association of Special Libraries
1969		(East) Pakistan Special Libraries Association
1970	Punjab Library Assoc. Sind Library Assoc.	
Founding date unknown	Baluchistan Library Assoc. North West Frontier Province Library Assoc.	

The Federal Library Association, the one association that does not seem to fit this pattern is not exactly what its name might imply, but is the association of librarians in Islamabad, the federal capital and Rawalpindi, the adjoining large city.

LIBRARY EDUCATION PROGRAMS

There are two primary ways that individuals in the British Commonwealth of Nations may obtain professional library education. The most obvious way is to attend a library school and obtain either a diploma or a professional degree. However in addition to this method, the (British) Library Association instituted many years ago its own training program. It consists basically of two examinations given after periods of group or individual study followed by a two-year period of practical work in a library under the supervision of a certified professional librarian. Upon successfully completing this program an individual is given the designation of Associate of the Library Association, or A.L.A. This professional recognition by the Library Association has served as a most viable alternative to formal studies, although an increasing trend in Great Britain is towards the latter. In response to a definite need in the Commonwealth the Library Association initiated a system of external examinations whereby individuals in the Commonwealth could receive the same certification.

While this has been felt by some to detract from the development of library schools in the Commonwealth, it has maintained an internationally recognized standard of library education during the interim periods when newly independent nations establish their own standards and educational programs. It was announced however that in 1974 the last of the examinations for the first part of the external examination system would be given as the program is to be discontinued.

As was mentioned earlier, only 27 Ceylonese librarians have professional degrees from Australia, Canada, Great Britain or the United States. Not recorded in this report is the number of people who received library degrees in India, a number that could be quite large given the proximity of Ceylon to India, and the common language of Tamil for a portion of the population of Ceylon. If most of the people in the Ceylon Library Association have professional qualifications they would have had to have gotten them under the external examination system of the Library Association.

In 1961 the Ceylon Library Association established a training program. It was envisioned as a three year course in which students would be tested at the end of each year. The response to this program was quite good, but the attrition rate was very high. By 1966 only 6 students had managed to pass the second test and work was just starting for the preparation of the third year's portion of the course. Considering the needs of the country for librarians this program was not satisfactory. Also in 1961 the University of Ceylon began a master's level program for training librarians. Unfortunately by 1965 when the program ceased, only 10 people had received their degrees under this training scheme. Much work yet needs to be done in Ceylon to develop an effective library education system. It can only be hoped that the termination of the Library Association's external degree program will provide an additional incentive to start such a system.

In contrast to Ceylon there has been a long history of library education in Pakistan. It began in 1915 when Asa Don Dickinson was invited by Punjab University to come to Lahore to assist with the development of its library. Mr. Dickinson, an American, immediately began a library training program that awarded a certificate to those who successfully completed the program. This library education program continued until 1959 when it was expanded into a diploma course.

Besides this early library education program, Pakistan has had numerous programs at various levels. Figure 3 records only those programs sponsored by either universities or professional associations, and omits special institutes and workshops.

As a word of explanation a certificate generally means a library education program of about 6 months duration and is open to anyone without concern for educational background. A diploma course is usually connected with a university and may be either at the undergraduate or graduate level. The master's and doctor's degrees of course are familiar to everyone.

By 1966 about 500 people had received certificates and over 1,100 had diplomas or other higher degrees. About 200 people are currently being trained by all the programs in Pakistan. [2] It is clearly evident that a very high priority has been placed upon library education in Pakistan. Although a word of caution is appropriate that standards of admission and the quality of instruction very considerably, the basic structure for a system of library education at various levels is evident in Pakistan.

Figure 3. Library Education Programs in Pakistan

	Certificate	Diploma	Graduate Diploma	Master's Degree	Doctor's Degree
ACADEMIC PROGRAMS					
Dacca University	1952-1959		1959-62	1962-	
Karachi University		1952-55	1956-62	1962-	1968-
Peshawar University		1960-			
Punjab University	1915-1959	1959-			
Sind University		1967-			
PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATION PROGRAMS					
East Pakistan Library Assoc.	1959-				
Karachi Library Association	1952-				
Pakistan Bibliographical Working Group		1959-			
West Pakistan Library Assoc.	1960-				

NATIONAL LIBRARIES

Ceylon which technically has no national library has a library situation in which most of the functions of a national library are performed by several relatively strong institutions. The keystone of this arrangement is the Colombo Museum Library. Founded in 1887, it was based on the example of the British Museum. Contained in its non-circulating collections is the preeminent collection on Ceylon in the country. The largest circulating library in Ceylon is the Colombo Public Library. Each municipality however regularly spends about 1 percent of its total budget for the support of local public libraries. There is consequently a fairly large number of small public libraries backed up by the resources of the Colombo Public Library. Control of materials published in Ceylon is controlled by the Government Archivist. Legislation passed in 1885 required one copy of everything published in Ceylon to be deposited with the Government Archivist. All of the materials so deposited are regularly listed in special issues of the Ceylon Government Gazette. With the passage of time the government archives have amassed the largest collection of Ceylon imprints in Ceylon. However the function of the archives is for preservation rather than for active use, although qualified researchers can be allowed access to the archives. The continuity of function from British days, and a mild development from it has given Ceylon the opportunity to have a viable system of bibliographic control of local imprints, the development of indepth research collections on all aspects of Ceylon, and through the Colombo Public Library an agency that makes materials available to the public.

The situation in Ceylon must be the envy of every librarian in Pakistan. While it was recognized in 1947 that there should be a national library in Pakistan, its evolution has produced numerous factional battles and many frustrations. In 1955-56 the Government of Pakistan invited the Australian library consultant Mr. L. C. Key to advise them on a national library. Unfortunately the time was not viewed to be appropriate to implement all of the recommendations of Mr. Key. One portion that was acted favorably upon however was the designation of the Liaquat Memorial Public Library of Karachi as the national library. The word "public" was immediately dropped from its title, and a host of new responsibilities was dumped onto the understaffed library. To complicate matters more the Liaquat Memorial Library did not even have its own quarters so that space has been a continual problem. Because of its designation as the national library however the five-year plans of Pakistan began to offer at least some assistance. The third five-year plan even managed to provide a permanent building.

The designation of a library in West Pakistan however was not accepted by librarians and others in East Pakistan and they immediately began a campaign to have a national library in East Pakistan, or at least to have a very strong regional library. The result of their efforts was that when the copyright act of 1962 was finally implemented in 1967 three libraries were designated depositories of all works published in Pakistan. These three were the East Pakistan Central Public Library, and the Liaquat Memorial Library and the National Library in Islamabad.

The National Library in Islamabad grew out of the decision of the government to build a new national capital. In evaluating the matter it was decided that rather than rob Karachi of its former public library it would be better to begin a new national library. The usual trials and tribulations of any new library working in an emerging governmental system have produced countless delays and the national library of Pakistan in Islamabad has yet to fulfill its national responsibilities.

While there could have been no way to resolve the location of the national library between East and West Pakistan, the development of the national library was probably delayed by the simultaneous thrust on the part of the Pakistan National Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre (PANSDOC) to develop a national science library. In 1960 a Scientific Commission reported to the government on the status of science in Pakistan. This report [3] mentioned that a central service should be set up to facilitate scientific holdings in the country. In 1961 PANSDOC sent its director to Europe for three months to survey scientific and special libraries. His report, published in 1962, added momentum to the movement for a national science library. PANSDOC continued this momentum by holding a conference in 1963 on the development of scientific and technical libraries in Pakistan. Of the 35 papers presented, 2 of them directly advocated a national scientific library. One of these papers, the Need for a central (national) science library in Pakistan by M. I. Khurshid was even reprinted and issued by the Planning Commission of the President's Secretariat. Thus rather than evolving a pattern of libraries with national responsibilities in sequence there occurred in the 1960's simultaneous national library movements that probably delayed the implementation of any one of them.

BIBLIOGRAPHIC CONTROLS

Whereas it had been anticipated that a large number of reference tools and bibliographic aids have been published in the two countries and that meaningful comparisons could be made between them, upon looking for such works it was soon found that much work still needs to be done, especially in Ceylon. In 1956 a UNESCO sponsored guide to reference works published in Asia was compiled by P. K. Garde. Figure 4 records the reference tools for the two countries subdivided by Dewey class number. This figure clearly shows that whereas there has been a great interest in developing bibliographical controls in Pakistan, there has been little effort in Ceylon. This tendency has continued in the intervening years, and it is in Pakistan that one finds by far the greater activity in producing bibliographical controls. One should not however equate quantity with quality as some of these works are rapidly produced, full of inconsistencies, and difficult to use. On the other hand some are definite contributions to scholarship. The works cited in the following sections are those that are general in nature or for special formats. No attempt can be made to deal with tools for special subject areas.

Figure 4. Reference Books Published in Ceylon and Pakistan.

Dewey Class Number	Ceylon	Pakistan
000's	3	29
100's	0	0
200's	0	4
300's	3	14
400's	0	31
500's	0	6
600's	1	5
700's	0	3
800's	0	0
900's	1	11
Total	8	103

Source: P. K. Garde, Directory of reference works published in Asia.

NATIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHIES

As was mentioned earlier, in 1885 deposit legislation was passed in Ceylon and items so deposited have appeared in bibliographical supplements of the Ceylon Government Gazette. The transition to a national bibliography has consequently been easier than in Pakistan since there is a long history of depositing materials. The Ceylon national bibliography began in 1963 and has been issued regularly since then and relatively currently. The frequency with which the bibliography is issued has changed several times. It first appeared monthly in 1963 but switched to quarterly in 1964. In 1965 it was back to monthly, only to change to quarterly in 1966 and 1967. Finally in 1968 it once again became monthly and has remained a monthly publication since then.

There are three sections in each issue of the bibliography, one for each of the three major languages of Ceylon, namely Sinhala, Tamil and English. Within each of these sections there are two subsections. The first is an alphabetical index of authors, titles and subjects, and the second is a classed sequence following UDC. The currentness in production of the bibliography has unfortunately been at the expense of making the work as useful as possible. There is for instance no cumulative index to each volume, although it has been mentioned that work is in progress to produce a multiyear index to the bibliography. It also is not a complete bibliography. A policy was adopted whereby works which appear in several linguistic editions are cited only by the first linguistic edition received. Thus a work which appears in Sinhala, Tamil and English of which the Tamil edition was processed first will be cited only in the Tamil section with no mention of it in the Sinhala and English sections.

Pakistan has not been as fortunate as Ceylon in having a functioning depository or copyright office at the time of independence. Initially copyright functions were administered under the terms of earlier Indian legislation, but in 1962 a copyright law was passed. Unfortunately it was not fully implemented until 1967 so there are large numbers of materials that may be beyond bibliographical control.

The government has set up a National Bibliographical Unit under the Directorate of Archives and Libraries that is responsible for the Pakistan national bibliography. The first volume of the bibliography appeared for the year 1962. Only the Roman alphabet is used in this volume and the volumes for 1963, 1964, and 1968, the only volumes that have been issued. The arrangement in the initial volumes in contrast to the Ceylon national bibliography is in two parts. The first cites trade publications and the second lists government publications. Within each section a Dewey subject arrangement is followed with an index to authors, titles, editors, translators and subjects.

The volume for 1968 was the fourth to appear and the preface mentions several difficulties that still remain in the compilation of the work. Although it is a bit lengthy I quote it to show how real the problems encountered are.

> This is the first tentative issue of the Pakistan national bibliography after the enforcement of the Copyright Ordinance, 1962. It contains entries for books . . . delivered by publishers in 1968. It has however been experienced that a large number of books and periodicals published during the year have not been deposited with us, as certain publishers are not complying with the relevant provisions of the Copyright Ordinance, in spite of the fact that their attention has continuously been drawn to deliver the books etc., on a regular basis. This bibliography, contains entries for only those books and periodicals that have been actually received from the publishers in the designated libraries. It does not represent the entire book production in the country.
>
> The work of the compilation of the Pakistan national bibliography has been carried out with the barest minimum assistance, afforded by the skeleton staff of the Liaquat Memorial Library. This has in turn adversely affected the other normal functions of the library. As soon as there is a regular staff available for the National Bibliographical Unit and the supply of books by the publishers is on a more regular basis, the future issues of the national bibliography will be more accurate, exhaustive and up-to-date. [4]

It must have taken a great deal of courage to write this, or else the despair of such a hopeless situation simply had to be described.

The Pakistan Bibliographical Working Group has been working on a retrospective national bibliography for the period 1947-1961. In 1972 fascicule one covering Dewey numbers 00-297 was published. It is anticipated that 25,000 items will be cited in the final work.

GENERAL BIBLIOGRAPHIES

In 1951 A. R. Ghani published Pakistan, select bibliography. While the title would imply that this is a general compendium it was actually sponsored by the Pakistan Association for the Advancement of Science and this is reflected in its contents. They are: Making of Pakistan; Geography, Description and Travel; Natural Resources; Peoples of Pakistan; Economy; Industries; Agriculture; and Animal Husbandry. This work, compiled by a librarian, cites about 9000 items, a most impressive work for a country that was only 4 years old.

In 1965 the National Book Centre began issuing a guide to English language materials published in Pakistan as an attempt to advertise them. The initial volume had the title Books on Pakistan but it was changed later to Books from Pakistan. While hardly a books in print for Pakistan it does fulfill a role of making some English language imprints known to the people of Pakistan.

Two library school students as a special project compiled Pakistan: a bibliography of books and articles published in the United Kingdom from 1947-64. The project consisted of searching the British National Bibliography, British Book News and 93 periodicals. Considering Pakistan's colonial heritage the work certainly will prove to be useful.

Although it took until 1970 to come into existence H. A. I. Goonetileke's Bibliography of Ceylon, a systematic guide to the literature on the land, people, history and culture published in western languages from the sixteenth century to the present day, in two volumes, was well worth the wait. Over 12,000 items are cited in this compendium by the librarian of the University of Ceylon. Since the work was compiled by a librarian holding such a prominent library position in the country, it seems strange that there are no subject entries or sections for such library related terms as libraries, librarianship, printing or publishing.

GOVERNMENT DOCUMENT GUIDES

The only governmental guide to government documents in Ceylon is the section on government documents that appears in the list of works published in Ceylon in the government gazette. There is no systematic or cumulative tool to Ceylon government documents. Governmental bibliographic control of government documents is even worse in Pakistan. The only tool is the periodic lists of items for sale from the Government Printing Office, and since this lists only what is for sale it is not complete as many government agencies sell their publications independent of the Government Printing Office.

However two private publications in Pakistan do control government documents. The first is Publications of the Government of Pakistan, 1947-57, by George B. Moreland and Akhtar H. Siddiqui. It is arranged by the respective ministries of the government followed by the publications of other agencies. A subject index is also provided.

The work was continued by Akhtar H. Siddiqui in A guide to Pakistan government publications 1958-1970. It follows the same agency by agency arrangement and subject index, but it also includes a special section that cites government periodicals. Over 3,300 works are cited in this cumulation.

UNION LISTS

One partial solution to the problem of limited funds for the purchase of materials is to produce union lists of holdings and then developing systems of inter-library loan so that resources can be shared by more than one institution. The extremely high cost of scientific periodicals has probably served as the impetus for the two recent union lists of scientific journals held in libraries in the two countries.

The Union list of scientific periodicals in Ceylon which appeared in 1971 is actually an updating of a work that was produced in 1953. The 1971 list records 4,000 periodicals held by 48 libraries in Ceylon. In 1970 the Union catalogue of scientific and technical periodicals in the libraries of Pakistan was published. It records 5,000 periodicals held by 98 libraries. An earlier version of this list appeared in 1950. Since the Pakistan list was computer produced, one may anticipate that it will be regularly updated.

In addition to the union list for scientific periodicals, the Union catalogue of periodicals in the social sciences held by libraries in Pakistan was published in 1961. This work cites over 1,000 periodicals held by 55 libraries.

GUIDES TO REFERENCE WORKS

Anyone attempting to provide reference service on a foreign country greatly appreciates having guides to reference tools published in that country. While general guides such as Winchell, Walford, Malcles and Totok are available, one soon finds in using them for data on Pakistan and Ceylon that they are much too general.

Unfortunately a guide to reference books published in or about Ceylon has never appeared. In Pakistan there have been three such works. The first to appear was Guide to works of reference published in Pakistan by Khawja Nur Elahi, A. Moid, and Akhtar H. Siddiqui. This extremely brief work was done in 1953 as one of the first projects of the Pakistan Bibliographical Working Group. It is arranged by DDC and has no index.

Akhtar H. Siddiqui continued his interest in reference tools and in 1966 published a Guide to reference books published in Pakistan. This edition cites 473 items in a subject arrangement that also has some format divisions for encyclopedias, bibliographies, calendars and other special format reference works. There is an author index. Although the work is not annotated it still is very useful as it cites many government items often overlooked in reference compendia.

The third compendium, Reference sources on Pakistan, a bibliography, was also done by Akhtar H. Siddiqui. This greatly expanded work arranges about 1000 items by subject and is not confined to Pakistan imprints only. Unfortunately the work is marred by the fact that correct bibliographical citation is not always used and there are a number of misspellings.

URDU

The unifying element for much in Pakistan and Ceylon has been the use of the English language which has served as a neutral force when linguistic questions have arisen. As time has passed however official or national languages have received increasing attention and English has been slowly but consistently phased out of numerous aspects of Ceylonese and Pakistani life.

By and large bibliographic controls in both countries still use English so that the widest possible audience will be served by them. However there is coming into existence a number of reference tools in local languages and they should not be overlooked when investigating bibliographical controls. Using only one language, Urdu, as an example I should like to cite just a few titles to point out the diversity of controls that are being made.

Earlier I referred to Books on Pakistan in English. There is a similar title for works in the Urdu language, پاکستان پر کتابیں published by the National Book Centre in 1967. In 1973 the Center even published a guide to children's books in Urdu,

بچوں کی کتابیں ؛ پاکستان میں شائع ہونے والی اردو کتابوں کی جامع فہرست

As a companion to Akhtar H. Siddiqui's quides to reference books which deal only with English imprints there is a guide to reference books in Urdu entitled

اردو میں حوالے کی کتابیں

Urdu, and its earlier and better known name of Hindustani, has had an extensive literary development. There have been several guides to Urdu literature and works available. An encyclopedic catalog of Urdu literature citing numerous editions of classic texts is the

قاموس الکتب اردو The first volume appeared in 1961 and more volumes are anticipated. In 1974 the National Book Centre produced a bibliography of novels published in Pakistan from 1947 to 1973 entitled

ناول ؛ پاکستان میں شائع ہونے اردو ناولوں کی جامع فہرست

INDEX TRANSLATIONUM

In addition to work on bibliographical controls for internal publications both Ceylon and Pakistan have been involved with some international agencies concerned with bibliographical controls. One such international compendium is the UNESCO sponsored work Index translationum. Figure 5 cites the number of translations that Ceylon and Pakistan have produced and the governmental agency that submitted the data to UNESCO. Several observations may be made in looking at this figure. Whereas the number of translations cited by Ceylon is within a reasonable range of variation , the number of translations from Pakistan is erratic. Both countries have also had years when they have not submitted information to UNESCO. When this has happened, the duty has been assumed by another agency. In Ceylon, once the responsibility was undertaken by the National Bibliography Office, it remained there. In contrast, the responsibility in Pakistan eventually settled upon the Ministry of Education.

Figure 5. Translations into Local Languages, Ceylon and Pakistan

Year and volume		Number of translations		Agency submitting data to UNESCO	
		Ceylon	Pakistan	Ceylon	Pakistan
1948	Vol. 1	0	0		
1949	Vol. 2	0	0		
1950	Vol. 3	0	0		
1951	Vol. 4	0	0		
1952	Vol. 5	0	1		*Min. of Education
1953	Vol. 6	5	1	Min. of External Affairs	Min. of Education
1954	Vol. 7	4	8	Min. of External Affairs	Min. of Education
1955	Vol. 8	1	135	Min. of External Affairs	Min. of Education
1956	Vol. 9	0	15		Min. of Education
1957	Vol. 10	0	26		Min. of Education
1958	Vol. 11	46	116	Ceylonese Comm. for UNESCO	Min. of Education
1959	Vol. 12	77	0	Ceylonese Comm. for UNESCO	
1960	Vol. 13	109	28	Registrar of Books & News.	EPCPL
1961	Vol. 14	96	11	Registrar of Books & News.	Min. of Education
1962	Vol. 15	95	52	Registrar of Books & News.	Min. of Education
1963	Vol. 16	102	400	Registrar of Books & News.	Min. of Education
1964	Vol. 17	67	206	Registrar of Books & News.	National Bibliographical Unit
1965	Vol. 18	114	169	National Bibliography Office	National Bibliographical Unit
1966	Vol. 19	76	0	National Bibliography Office	
1967	Vol. 20	84	482	National Bibliography Office	Min. of Education & EPCPL
1968	Vol. 21	88	94	National Bibliography Office	Min. of Education & EPCPL
1969	Vol. 22	38	167	National Bibliography Office	Min. of Education & EPCPL
1970	Vol. 23	51	67	National Bibliography Office	Min. of Education & EPCPL
1971	Vol. 24	55	36	National Bibliography Office	Min. of Education

* Abbreviations: Vol. - Volume; Min. - Ministry; Comm. - Commission; News. - Newspapers; EPCPL - East Pakistan Central Public Library.

Source: *Index translationum*

SUMMARY REMARKS

In reflecting back upon the aspects of library science that have been noted in this paper it is apparent that although both Ceylon and Pakistan have the similar heritage of British colonial administration and received their independence within a year of each other, they clearly have not had parallel library evolution since then. Ceylon in building upon a functioning system of copyright and deposit legislation has maintained great control over bibliographic output and has been able to develop a national bibliography that is fairly complete. Although there is no national library there are the component parts of one, based again upon institutions developed during British times.

Yet it is Pakistan that has developed programs of library education at several levels, developed library and library related associations, and produced numerous types of bibliographic guides. Had Pakistan been the recipent of the Imperial Library one might surmise that Pakistan would today have a good national library and national bibliography.

The initial question asked in this paper was can one predict a commonality of library development in two former British colonies that received their independence within a year of each other? The examples of Ceylon and Pakistan seem rather clearly to demonstrate that local conditions are likely to play a dominant role that overrides the impact of a common colonial experience.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Jayasiri Lankage, "Library Education in Ceylon," Ceylon Library Review 4 no. 1 (1971) p. 69.

[2] K. W. Kadri, "Library education and training in Pakistan," IN George S. Bonn, Library education and training in developing countries. p. 132.

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DEVELOPMENT OF LIBRARY EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN THE TWO GERMANIES SINCE 1945

Peter Neenan

Since the era of Friedrich Ebert in the 1820's, the recognition of the need for the desirability of systematic training in librarianship has been a feature of the German educational consciousness. By the dawn of the present century, the existence of such programs under the mandate of the Prussian Ministerial Regulations of 1893 was to ensure the continuation of at least some type of education for librarianship to the present day. The establishment of formal programs of preparation for librarians having become a fait accompli, subsequent concerns with the subject have tended to center upon the nature of such programs, both in terms of format and intellectual content, as well as the purpose and direction such education should take. The partition of the Deutsches Reich following the Second World War and the subsequent formation of autonomous republics in 1949 provide a unique "laboratory-type" setting within which to view the effect of divergent political philosophies upon the development and direction of programs of professional preparation for practitioners of librarianship in a region where the existence of such programs had been an established phenomenon for a considerable length of time prior to the imposition of the political and social variables the division entailed.

In order to observe more fruitfully the divergent paths taken by agencies of formal library education in the two Germanys, it will be necessary to treat briefly of the development of such programs in pre-war Germany. As Kunze has indicated, the method of preparation for the highest level of German librarians prior to 1945 consisted of a two-year post-graduate course added upon an academic specialization which the aspirant had successfully pursued at the doctoral level. This approach, first articulated in the Prussian Regulations, had the effect of ensuring the scholarly competence of academic librarians, yet the arduous commitment to study required--approximately 22 years of formal education--necessitated a specification of functions in order that the more routine tasks might be performed by individuals not requiring such a high level of academic preparation. In order to make provision for the training of such workers, another Prussian ministerial order, in 1909, was issued in which educational requirements for academic library assistants and public librarians were mandated. For both these groups, the requirements were similar:

a three-year period of preparation, of which the first was spent in practical work in a library while the final two years consisted of a formal education in which a theoretical approach was undertaken. This basic system, with its attendant bifurcation into "higher" and "lower" levels of library service, remained basically intact (with the exception of the separation of preparation for public librarianship from that for academic library assistants in 1930) until the downfall of the Nazi regime in 1945.[1]

Following the war, both the concepts and programs of library education followed markedly different directions in the Democratic and Federal Republics. The former undertook a relatively complete revision of library education, while in the latter the pre-war, traditional scheme has tended to prevail with only minor modification until fairly recent years.

The shift in pattern and purpose of education for librarianship in the German Democratic Republic can most clearly be discerned in both the recognition of library science as an academic discipline in its own right (rather than a "craft" to be acquired having once attained a degree in a scholarly discipline) and the upgrading in importance of public librarianship to a status more nearly on a level of parity with its academic counterpart. This approach, which Kovacs has indicated is held in common throughout the socialist republics of Eastern Europe, is predicated upon a rationale (viz., "the production of highly trained specialists who are also librarians") with a two-fold implication: "first that library work must be regarded as a profession, on the same basis as...teaching, economics, or engineering, and that librarians, if they are to be successful in their work, must receive theoretical, historical, and practical training to the same standard as that provided for other specialized intellectual work. Secondly, the training...must take account of the requirements of different types of library--i.e., the emphasis must be upon those which are of prime importance from the standpoint of social development (e.g. public libraries and specialized libraries of various kinds). In the past, the object of training courses was to produce research librarians able to use books in scientific libraries, and technical assistants with a smaller range of knowledge to work in public libraries. These two types of librarians have a common successor today--the specialist with an up-to-date training who is capable of running a library as a cultural institution and also of carrying out the practical work involved."[2]

Although the recognition of the importance of libraries, particularly public libraries, as agencies of cultural and political socialization charged with the responsibility for the eradication of fascism was clearly evident following the establishment of the Soviet Zone of Occupation, [3] the effect of this awareness was not immediately impressed upon the system of professional preparation of librarians. Thus, the "Interim Training and Examination Regulations" which were placed into effect in 1947 largely retained the pre-war methods of library training. [4] Following the establishment of the "Commission for Problems of Training" under the auspices of the State Secretariat for Higher Education, whose purpose it was to develop proposals for programs of library education, a new regulation concerning this matter was promulgated in 1955.[5] It was in this development, providing for the consequent establishment of the Institut für Bibliothekswissenschaft at Humboldt University in Berlin in the same year, that the revised approach toward library education came to the fore. This Institute, the purpose of which was and is to provide the highest level in academic work in librarianship as a discipline in the G.D.R., has remained the only library education program in either East or West Germany which allows specialization in librarianship at the university level equivalent to doctoral study. The rationale for the program does maintain a strong link with previous library training extant in pre-war Germany, in that this highest level of academic preparation is designed to produce scholar-librarians to meet the needs of the large academic and research libraries of the German Democratic Republic. It is at this point, however, that the similarity ends, for the stated purpose of the program is to promote the study of librarianship as an academic discipline in its own right. Consequently, considerable emphasis is placed on theoretical consideration of librarianship in the curriculum. Yet another departure from the "traditional" Germanic approach to library education is evidenced by the importance of the concept of integration of the study of librarianship with other academic subjects throughout the five-year curriculum, a practice which permits a greater or lesser degree of interdisciplinary study and specialization depending on which of the program tracks the student elects.[6] This integration on the university level further provides for a considerable degree of emphasis upon philosophical and political subjects and their relation to librarianship--an approach similar to that taken in the Soviet Union and the Peoples' Democracies of Eastern Europe. Beginning in 1968, the Institute provided an option by which the student might elect either to specialize in librarianship alone or in both librarianship and another academic discipline. While the latter approach is still recommended for those aspiring to practice in academic libraries, the former method is provided particularly for those who envision a career in public libraries. Which ever option is elected, the period of formal education remains the same--four years. In both instances, the curriculum remains essentially similar, with a strong emphasis upon the social sciences in their relation to library science.[7]

With the growth in importance of information science as an area of academic inquiry, a third option for study combining information science with a second specialization in another discipline has been provided at the Institute, as a result of the 1965 degree by the Council of Ministers of the G.D.R. which called for greater coordination of study in information science and documentation with that in library science.[8]

Even prior to the establishment of the Institute at Humboldt University, the need for the establishment of programs more appropriately designed to prepare "second level" library staff for both research and public libraries was recognized and acted upon. Thus it was that in 1953 the Fachschule für Bibliothekare, subsequently named after Erich Weinert, was established at Leipzig, under direct control of the Ministry for Culture. The period of formal study, originally designed to extend over a four-year period (subsequently reduced to three in 1969), is closely intertwined with the provision of practical experience throughout the program, rather than upon completion of the coursework component as is the case with the educational program at the Institute. This program, aimed at preparation of students in "general libraries" (i.e., public, social and youth, trade union, hospital, and military libraries), is again predicated upon the concept of integration of study in librarianship with other academic areas, although neither the degree of specialization required nor the opportunity to select an area of emphasis is as prevalent a feature as at Humboldt.

The curriculum can be envisioned as comprising nine areas, of which a library science "core" consisting of administration and planning, library history, subject bibliography and information, and an elementary treatment of cataloging and classification can be discerned. In addition, considerable emphasis is placed upon studies in Marxism-Leninism, language facility, scientific knowledge, and physical education. As Burrington has indicated, this is the only program in the nation that draws attention to "the social as well as the educational function of libraries."[9]

Formal vocational-educational programs designed to meet the demand for technical workers in libraries of all types have likewise been a prominent feature of library education in the German Democratic Republic. In 1954, two such programs were established: the Fachschule für Bibliothekare an Wissenschafllichen Bibliotheken in Leipzig and the Fachschule für Bibliothekare in Berlin. Both programs cover a three-year period, with the emphasis in the latter more heavily placed upon information science and documentation. Aside from mandatory coursework in Marxism-Leninism and language study in Russian, French, and English, no further study in academic areas outside librarianship is required. As with the program at "Erich Weinert," practical experience in libraries is provided throughout the period of study in addition to the concentration on such work during the third and final year of study.[10]

Mounting pressures created by the lack of supply of trained personnel for libraries resulted, in the late 1960's, in a series of actions designed to alleviate the situation. Beginning with the 1969-1970 academic year, training programs for "library specialists" were revamped into a two-year sequence, of which the first year consists of a common core program of studies for all students while the remaining year allows for differentiation of coursework determined by the type of library in which the prospective assistant intends to work. As Seik has indicated, however, even this approach has not been deemed totally satisfactory in that higher standards of training as well as a better political-ideological education appear necessary in order to enhance the quality of the product provided by such schools.[11]

The establishment and reform of the various components of the library education "system" in the German Democratic Republic have been dealt with by the government in the wider context of vocational education reform, the purpose of which is to evolve a higher standard of combining theory and practice, incorporating the results of basic research.[12] The centralization of planning for programs of library education, integration of the discipline of library science with other areas of specialization, and the importance placed upon preparation of librarians other than academic represent a relatively clean break with the traditional pattern of German library education prior to the Second World War as well as a markedly different conceptualization of the nature and scope of such programs manifest in the Federal Republic, where a considerably more direct lineage can be traced between pre-war library education practices and the present status of such agencies.

The tri-partite division of library personnel into scholarly and diploma librarians supported by clerical assistants in West Germany has provided the impetus for appropriate programs of education and training for each group. The Prussian distinction between the "higher" (i.e. "scholarly") and "lower" (i.e. "public") levels of library service, with the attendant implications of the type and extent of library education necessary to produce effective practitioners for both types of service, has continued to dominate the educational scene. The concept of an integrated approach to education for academic librarianship has not yet been realized in the F.R.G., although recognition of the desirability for such an approach has become increasingly prevalant.[13] Three programs, the Bibliothekar-Lehrinstitut des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen at Cologne, the Bayerische Staatsbibliothek at Munich, and the Bibliotheksschule Frankfurt-am-Main provide a two-year post-graduate course designed to prepare academic librarians after they have attained the doctorate in an academic discipline.[14] Both programs require the initial year to be one of formal study, with emphasis on the scholarly aspects of the profession, while the final year is spent in practical library experience followed by the administration of a professional examination.[15] The curriculum of these programs is essentially similar, with little consideration given in any of them to either information science or documentation.

A postgraduate course requiring a university degree prior to admission is also provided in the field of documentation at the Lehrinstitut für Dokumentation in der Deutschen Gessellschaft für Dokumentation Ev at Frankfurt. Reciprocating the consideration given documentation by the aforementioned programs, the Lehrinstitut offers only one course in librarianship.[16]

The requirements for preparation of public librarians and academic library assistants remain on a lower level as they have since the days of the Prussian Regulations. The standard program consists of a certificate or diploma course acquired in a two to three year period. Prior to admission, the student must at least have completed education at the junior college level.[17] For the eight institutions which offer such programs, curricula are reasonably uniform, although emphasis does vary depending upon whether priority is placed upon the preparation of either academic assistants or public librarians.[18] The programs whose purpose it is to provide public librarians have increasingly been subject to criticism because of the perceived over-emphasis such schools place upon "literary" subjects.[19] In addition to these programs, courses of study leading to the diploma in documentation are offered at both the Institut für Bibliothekarausbildung at the Free University in Berlin and at the Lehrinstitut für Dokumentation in Frankfurt-am-Main. As with the postgraduate programs in documentation, no attempt is made to integrate library science with the curricula in either of these programs.

Activity aimed toward redesign of these various programs of library education in the Federal Republic has recently been undertaken which promises to substantially affect the future direction such courses will take. In response to increasing dissatisfaction over the lack of adequate preparation of special librarians,[20] the need for the establishment of librarianship as an academic discipline and its integration with other fields of inquiry, including documentation and information science, within programs of professional preparation;[21] as well as the desire for upgrading and differentiating the various levels of library service and the programs designed to provide the personnel to staff those levels,[22] proposals and reorganizations have been undertaken to at least partially ameliorate these difficulties.

While the 1970 proposals of the education committee of the Association of German Librarians, designed to articulate the relationships between the various levels of preparation for academic librarianship and to provide appropriate courses of study for those levels, foundered upon the rocks of controversy over the amount of theoretical as opposed to practical training required, particularly for the lower levels, and the extent to which coursework in other disciplines should be incorporated in the programs of professional preparation, [23] governmental action has achieved greater results. Both the Hamburg Education Plan of 1970, which calls for the transition of education for diploma librarians from the ordinary level of library school to the university level,[24] and the proposed plan of the Public Libraries Committee of the Standing Conference of Education Ministers of the F.R.G. to coordinate library education and establish a framework within which such programs might operate[25] represent attempts to move in the direction of greater integration and more rigorous preparation. The last of these developments would appear of greatest significance, given the history of independence from federal government direction and coördination such programs have enjoyed since the establishment of the Bonn government.

A comparison of the development and status of the various library education programs in both the Federal and Democratic Republics provides a clear illustration of the effect of differing styles of political and philosophical approach upon such agencies. Having both begun with the same system of library education inherited from pre-war Germany, the two nations proceeded upon distinctly different paths. The system evolved by the German Democratic Republic, having its foundation in the recognition of the direct role played by libraries as agencies of cultural and political socialization, and being buttressed by a strong central government able effectively to coordinate the activities and directions of schools of librarianship, was able to move swiftly in the direction of educational redesign of both program format and curricular content. The Federal Republic, on the other hand, lacking central authority over the library schools in the various Lander, and in the absence of an officially guiding philosophy with respect to the societal functions of libraries, has, until quite recently, opted for a passive stance.

FOOTNOTES

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[5] *ibid.*

[6] Nestler, Friedrich. "Grundzüge der Bibliothekarischen Aus-und Weiterbildung der D.D.R." *Bibliothekar* 23 (7/8): July-August, 1969 p. 786-792.

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COMPARATIVE STUDIES: ONIONS? or THE EMPEROR'S NEW CLOTHES?

William Landram Williamson

Happily, this occasion affords me the opportunity to express some concerns about comparative librarianship that have been troubling me. Indeed, one problem of this field of study is precisely the lack of opportunity for discussion of such matters. In the United States particularly, the few who share this interest are so widely separated that getting together is rarely possible. I am glad to have this chance for I believe the field is suffering from excesses, and I hope my suggestions may contribute to our becoming more realistic and more creative.

I have used a title with two components: "Onions" because we have tended to delude ourselves that there are some inherent and self-evident characteristics of libraries and their governing societies and the relationship between the two, and "The Emperor's New Clothes" because we have become so solemn about comparative studies that we have begun to attribute to them almost magical virtues when, in fact, our reliance upon the strategy of comparison is essentially a use of the crude tools at our disposal in the absence of the precise knowledge that might afford us tools more finely honed.

The onion is a favorite analogy of one of my friends who is fond of saying he views the comparative method as like pulling apart an onion and examining the leaves one by one. The analogy has a major fallacy and a minor flaw. The fallacy is the suggestion that the component parts of library and societal situations and their interrelationships are, in some way, natural phenomena that we need simply to examine along their natural lines. But, in truth, we do not know, to a certainty, which leaves are important, which are unimportant, and the differential weight of importance of those parts we judge sufficiently relevant to pull apart and consider. Moreover, the shape and the lines of cleavage of our comparative librarianship variables are conceived in the minds of men and have none of the objective reality that defines onion leaves. The delusion inherent in the analogy can be dangerous: it can lead us to believe we are examining reality when, in fact, we are looking only at the products derived from our own preconceptions of the nature of the world. Further, reliance upon this delusion can lead us to neglect the fundamental studies that might enable us to identify, validate, and understand the genuinely relevant variables. True, we must accept some basic assumptions and make some preliminary judgments in singling out the variables we shall study. But it is dangerous if we come to believe we are studying natural variables like the leaves of an onion rather than to remember that we are dealing with the artificial conceptions growing from our own backgrounds, with their attendant biases and blindnesses.

In an attempt to move beyond preconceived ideas as to the important variables of libraries and their societal backgrounds, students in this seminar over the years have tried to find indicators of library development that could be correlated with the wealth of objective evidence of other aspects of society. If this effort were to succeed, it might generate novel hypotheses that would reveal and validate relationships of libraries with previously unsuspected societal characteristics. We might be able to free ourselves from our past assumptions and open our eyes to new relationships. The seminar's efforts in this direction have been hobbled by inadequate theoretical knowledge of important variables and also by the recurrent frustration of insufficient and inaccurate data. Williams, in a gallant attempt reported here, summoned up the determination necessary to use the available information as though it were accurate in order to experiment with correlations. Although the effort can scarcely be described as successful, it did, in Gertzog's striking phrase, "get far enough to fail." And Gertzog himself, beginning with the noticable reluctance of a particular county to join its neighbors in cooperative library ventures, sought to identify differences in socio-economic background that would explain the county's isolationism. The two papers are the latest attempts to identify the significant and influential features of the larger society that can become the hypothesized variables for further study. These efforts partake of the analogy of the onion in seeking to look at component parts but not in the fallacy that the parts are natural phenomena.

The minor flaw of the analogy is that, if one pulls apart all the leaves of the onion, one ends at last with nothing. I do not assert that comparative studies leave us, at the end, with nothing, but I am reminded by that suggestion of the tale of the Emperor's new clothes. Both the solemnity of the debates on terminology and the high promise of the contribution of "genuine" comparative studies suggest the reverence appropriate for an Emperor rather than the realistic respect due to the sturdy though crude laborer who, it seems to me, best represents comparative study. In order to understand the danger of the solemnity and the reverence, we must look at some of the expressions of some advocates of comparison.

At the extreme, we have read extraordinary suggestions that comparative librarianship can lead us to our destiny to clean up dirty books, prevent violence, and cure society's ills. At a less emotional level, we have seen attempts that go to great lengths to settle fine points of scope and definition. We have been asked to consider whether crossing a national boundary is essential to qualifying as comparison, whether there is a time dimension to comparative studies, whether the description of a foreign library is properly a part of comparative librarianship or whether it should be called something else, such as international librarianship, whether this international librarianship is a sub-division of comparative librarianship or comparative librarianship is a sub-division of international librarianship or, perhaps, whether they are separate but equal subject matters.

Now, I agree that some definitions and delimitations are useful and important. But we seem to be unduly preoccupied with making fine distinctions when all we really need is some agreement about terminology in order that we can readily communicate with each other. We need to avoid concentrating upon definition at the expense of substance. The insistence of some that, to qualify as comparative, a study must cross national borders illustrates the dogmatism that can hamper us; surely the important point is that the situations compared must be different, not that a national boundary necessarily makes the difference. From another point of view, it is important for us to recognize that we run counter to generally accepted principles of scientific inquiry when we insist upon substantial differences in the situations being compared. In a laboratory experiment the investigator seeks to hold constant all conditions other than the single independent variable. When, as is true in all but ideal circumstances, all conditions cannot be held constant, research employs complex and sophisticated procedures to compensate for the changes and differences. In comparative studies, on the contrary, we seek and even require by definition considerable difference. We seem to value what others deplore. Of course, we do so for the very good reason that we must have gross variation in order to detect important difference. But we tend too much to make a virtue of a necessity, rather than working toward the improved identification of crucial variables and the finely tuned measurement that might enable us to approach the conventional scientific modes of investigation. We need to take care not to fall into the delusion that the comparative method is much more than the expedient we must use in the absence of a better method. To illustrate this danger, let me therefore consider one who is an acknowledged leader, not for the purpose of denying his real contribution but for the somewhat painful but very important purpose of pointing to a solemnity of approach and a rigidity of pronouncement that limit and hamper us.

George Z. F. Bereday, Professor of Comparative Education, Columbia University, is a leading spokesman. No doubt his contribution has been considerable, but it is certainly very considerably solemn. A small example: he acknowledges the help of a colleague who, he says, "in a happy moment, suggested the book's title." And what is the inventive and imaginative product of that happy moment? "Comparative Method in Education." (New York: Holt, 1964, p. xii). This is not simply a momentary lapse but a rather accurate reflection of the solemn presentation of the pedestrian and the obvious that characterizes this book. And these admonitions are followed religiously in some classes of comparative librarianship. I confess this book is on reserve for my own course, and it is useful in positive ways. Bereday says some valuable things, but he says them so solemnly and he maintains them so dogmatically that uncritical reliance upon him can be very dangerous.

He speaks, for example, of four steps in comparative studies and, in a hilarious diagram, he sketches them. (pp. 21-22). These four steps are,

(1) Description, that is, gathering and recording the facts of, say, a library situation in two countries

(2) Interpretation, that is, looking at the facts of the library situations in the context of the larger societies of the two countries

(3) Jutaposition, that is, laying side by side the interpreted facts of the two countries in terms of what he calls a "defining statement" (such as, to use an example of my own, the fact of open or closed access to shelves judged to be related to some broader feature of the character of the two countries) and then developing what he calls a hypothesis.

and (4) Comparison, that is Bereday says, a simultaneous treatment of countries studied in order to "prove" the hypothesis. In this stage, he says, one "highlights" the previously gathered information and comes to a conclusion.

Anyone in the least sensitive to admonitions of valid proof is likely to be troubled at once by the use of the hypothesis sample as the test sample, but when one looks at the arbitrary and capricious basis of selection of facts, the sort of rigor called for in even elementary research seems so far beyond Bereday's practice as to make any further discussion useless. And yet, there is indeed a point of value. Bereday says, for example, "Even a superficial comparison opens the eyes of the student to the truly broadening vistas. This extra dimension to the total thinking processes is the most substantial contribution that comparative studies in general have to offer," (p. 23). True, but the solemnity and pretentiousness are simply nonsense. He goes on to speak of "the problem approach" (p. 23) meaning studying small and limited questions and then "the total approach" (p. 25) which he calls "the culminating point of the discipline .... an area fitting for a magnum opus of a researcher's career."

Perhaps these examples are enough to illustrate an extraordinary solemnity about the rather obvious and rigid dogmatism about vague and impressionistic methods and evidence. Bereday goes on at very considerable length to make basically valid but strangely naive assertions about the importance of knowledge of languages, travel to the countries under study, and empathy and understanding that will correct for cultural bias.

All in all, Bereday's description raises expectations for achievement beyond reality, even if one were able to meet all of his many demands. Ultimately, these great works, in his view, are only to be achieved as the culmination of a long and rich career of total devotion. And yet his admonitions and strictures, when analyzed, boil down to something similar to Will Rogers's advice on how to make money in the stock market (buy low and sell high, and if the stock is not going to go up, don't buy). No one can challenge the truth of the admonition, only its practicability. Bereday says essentially the same thing: gather all of the relevant evidence and none of the irrelevant, be careful in your procedures, never misunderstand your data, always interpret correctly, and you will make a great contribution. No one can challenge that truth either.

I have spoken at some length about Bereday simply as an illustration, and I think not an atypical one, of a dogmatic and didactic prescription. This one and a number of others share two characteristics in particular: they tend to promise a great deal in accomplishment if the scholar can only meet all the stated requirements and they tend to rely for evidence upon taxonomic descriptions gathered on the basis of arbitrary and little-considered assumptions as to the important variables. When Bereday suggests that valid and truly penetrating comparative studies can be carried out only by research at the climax of a long career, informed by intimate knowledge of another culture, by fluent command of another language, and by lengthy stays in another land, he is setting standards so high as to make major contributions very rare and very long in coming. If he is correct that the only road to truth is as long as he describes it, then of course, that is the one we must travel, but I think it very doubtful it is indeed the only way and I even question whether what he finds at the end is likely to be more than an impressionistic conclusion, informed and sophisticated though it may be. I think the Bereday approach promises too much and by its promise and its dogmatism limits and restricts us. I think we should try some other paths.

We need, that is, to recognize what Koehl said during our meeting at Wisconsin in 1971, namely that comparison is an important and useful stage in the progression of a discipline but that it is a crude and limited strategy. We should indeed continue to use it, as some of the papers in our 1975 meeting do. I commend to your attention Johnson's comparison of the state of librarianship in two former components of the British Empire, Neenan's comparison of the paths taken by library education in the two new countries that grew under different auspices from a common German national experience, and Duran's comparison of library development in two former colonial territories. Each of them, looking at real-life situations side-by-side, provides insights not likely to have emerged from isolated studies of single situations. This strategy does indeed offer us our nearest approach to an experimental situation, at least until we know with greater certainty that at present what are in fact the crucial variables. Let us then continue to use comparison to highlight similarities and differences. But let us not delude ourselves that it is the ideal or that it has some magical powers. Let us, rather, continue to seek, both through comparison and through other strategies of research and investigation, such as scalograms that we have tried in the past and indicator correlation reported here, to identify and to validate the important variables, to understand the crucial relationships, and even perhaps to find causes and effects. Ultimately, perhaps it is not an utterly impossible dream that we can discover enough to enable us to begin to prescribe with some precision what kinds of libraries are required in what kinds of societies to achieve what kinds of purposes. But, in this last, I am falling into something of the fault I have been deploring. The difference is that it is mentioned here only as a dream of the future.

For the present, let us recognize that comparative studies can help us to understand a bit better than we now do. Let us not expect more than that, let us not waste our time on doctrinaire distinctions, and let us look for other alternatives as well.

INDICATORS OF LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT:

COUNTIES OF SOUTHWEST WISCONSIN

LARRY GERTZOG

The question I hoped to answer when I began this project was why one county in southwestern Wisconsin had decided consistently over an eighteen year period not to involve itself in a public library system with its neighboring counties. Vernon county is a rural county bordered on the west by the Mississippi River, and, in the geography of the library landscape, surrounded on all stateside boundaries by three different multicounty library systems. Actually, its eastern neighbor, the South Central Wisconsin Library System, of which Dane forms half, is new to the system scene itself, and does not enter into the analysis of the problem. However, the Southwest Wisconsin Library System, comprised of the five counties to the south of Vernon, although it only achieved full system status in 1974, has existed for eighteen years as a central processing resource center. The history of this developing cooperation is central to the question here because the long unfolding of Vernon's non-participation comes to light through it. And to the north is the La Crosse Area Library System, whose initiation in the mid-sixties prompted an additional act in the long history of Vernon's negative response to the system proposition. First of all let me say that the answers to the question of Vernon's non-participation that I will present are tentative and unsatisfactory. Better answers, if they are to be found, require further study at the source and more adequate and reliable methods of library research. This project represents only preliminary steps on both counts. My original strategy was to develop the problem around three levels of inquiry: 1) a demographic analysis of Vernon county and the five counties in the Southwest System- Crawford, Grant, Iowa, Lafayette, and Richland; 2) an historical and documentary investigation of the situation, relying on the files of the Division for Library Services; and 3) a series of visits and interviews at the libraries in question. It turns out, as will be seen, that the third avenue of study is crucial in substantiating the various answers suggested by the other approaches. The importance of library visits as a means of verification of statistical and documentary claims, and their value in gaining an understanding of the political configuration and interrelationships of library - library board - county board made the time limitations for visiting especially unfortunate.

Nevertheless, I did get far enough to fail, and along the way I was able to deal with many of the possible explanations of library development that made the problem interesting to me in the first place. In particular, the failure to find convincing general indicators, the contrary conclusion that contingent rather than general factors seem most accountable for explaining the situation, and more fundamentally the whole problem of the value and validity of library statistics as a framework for studying and understanding library development, has underscored the considerable present limitations of the analytical approach as a foundation for understanding. I will return to this again after presenting some of the data. Let me conclude this fore-warning by saying that the documentary evidence I uncovered in the Division for Library Service's files was rich in suggesting a convincing locus of explanation, but is troublesome in terms of a satisfactory conclusion in two ways: 1) the most valuable insights it provided are often contained in confidential correspondence and memoranda prepared by public library field consultants; and 2) the events and implications lying behind the history of Vernon's negative actions regarding system-involvement are often revealed in gaps in the documents - that is, what is not said or done while others move in positive directions. The process of reassembling and establishing what lurks behind the scenes is what visits and interviews might have accomplished. I hope that what has been uncovered provides some insights into the difficulties of explaining library development.

The main topic of this class has been the search for a key, an ability to explain, or at least account for library development on a very broad level. Hence the course's name, comparative librarianship; that little tag 'comparative' becoming a very problematical notion. It might be said that the term is merely verbal flypaper meant to capture academic legitimacy; that all research involves comparison - either theoretical, experimental, or actual - if not in an explicit or stated sense, then implicitly. To be sure this is true. But the comparative method is thought to involve something more distinctive, the something being that an explicit comparison of particular institutions or processes, for example libraries, lifted from their immediate contexts and displayed against each other across their geographical, cultural, socio-political, and historical contingencies, might reveal a general pattern that cuts across purely localized explanations of their nature. Thus it becomes immediately evident that in selecting for study a group of contiguous counties in southwestern Wisconsin I was certainly violating all of the requirements of a comparative study in the sense that it has just been described. It might be asked then, why did I choose it? The answer lies in the methodological focus that the class utilized in attempting to assemble the data of institutional development, namely library statistics and those demographic conditions which seemed to correlate best with given levels of development. This process can be summarized as a search for common library indicators measurable over differing library contexts. The immediate problem in this approach is obvious - the lack and inaccuracy of library data for much of the world. Furthermore, while basic demographic information generally is available for most of the world, the meaning of the components of analysis cannot be assumed to be uniform for all areas. Problems concerning the reliability and interpretation of the raw data beset the attempt to determine meaningful library indicators at all times.

Still concentrating on the importance of linking library development to demographic conditions, I came upon what seemed to be fertile ground for testing the viability of the concept, while maintaining the possibility to check the conclusions against other evidence. Why had Vernon county refused for almost twenty years to engage its libraries in what was becoming the most significant and promising pattern of library development, rural as well as urban. While sharing many characteristics with neighboring counties, did Vernon have some hidden difference that would quickly isolate itself when the various counties were subjected to statistical comparisons? In contrast to the poor and ambiguous data available for attempting comparative analyses in cross-national studies here was a situation offering both a significant question to be answered, and relatively good data to be explored for possible explanations. It must be added, though, that even here the data on libraries are noticeably suspect at several points, a limitation that produces some major paradoxes. But by limiting the scope of comparison drastically, at least the basic concepts of the method could be applied without unacceptable margins of error in the data. On the other hand, the primary liability of such scaling down, namely that it might eliminate the general variables of causality and leave only contingent grounds for explanation, is reflected in portions of the results, but in ways that will require close scrutiny later.

To begin with I will describe the nature of the five counties in the Southwest Wisconsin Library System and Vernon. Next I will briefly sketch the history of system development in the area, emphasizing events bearing on Vernon's role. Then I will attempt to establish library indicators for these counties in a manner similar to that developed by other studies, such as the Geography of Reading by Louis Round Wilson, commenting on the relevancy that such indicators seem to hold. Finally, I will compare these to categories of demographic data which seem most likely, upon visual inspection, to contribute to an explanation of differences in levels of library development, and especially to account for the behavior of Vernon county as compared to system participants.

Sources for this information are the Division for Library Service files on public libraries in the individual counties, files on the various systems, the *Wisconsin Library Service Record 1973*, previous issues of the *Record*, and the *City and County Data Book 1972*, based on the results of the 1970 U. S. census.

The southwestern corner of Wisconsin is a hilly agricultural region. The southernmost section was originally settled as part of the Illinois lead region before the Civil War, but the lead was soon depleted, and major development bypassed the area. Of the five counties belonging to the Southwest System, three, Grant, Iowa, and Lafayette lie below the Wisconsin River, which meanders slowly across the land to the Mississippi. Platteville, population 9599, is the largest city in the region, and is located in the largest and most densely populated county, Grant. [1] A sizable number of Grant county residents commute to Dubuque, Iowa, for work. The other counties, including Crawford and Richland, as well as Vernon to their north, are of roughly equivalent size (Vernon is midway between Crawford and Grant in size), and population density. Prairie du Chien, on the Mississippi in Crawford county and Richland Center of Richland county are the only other municipalities with over 5000 population in the area, while Iowa and Lafayette account for no towns over 3300. Viroqua, Vernon's county seat, has a population of 3739, and the nearest major city to the north is La Crosse, in the adjacent county. Otherwise, each county has from ten to twenty 4th class cities and villages with populations ranging from several hundred to several thousand.[2] Twenty-seven communities in the SWLS area, and six in Vernon county, support public libraries. About half of these have collections numbering at most four thousand volumes, and one third are even smaller, having no telephones and opening for eight or less hours a week.[3] Farm residents account for one quarter to two-fifths of county totals, and rural non-farm population comprises a somewhat greater proportion in each (except Crawford). Urban population ranges from a high of one third in Grant and 36% in Crawford to an official designation of zero in Lafayette.[4] Bear in mind that the rural character of the area is its dominating feature; countywide measurements, which include urban pockets and their libraries, tend to blur and sometimes to obliterate the reality of the rural library situation.

In the summer of 1956 librarians from communities in the five-county area that is today the Southwest System met and formed the Southwest Wisconsin Library Association, to meet periodically, together with public library consultants from the state agency, for discussion of common concerns, with special emphasis on sound selection and collection policies. The possibility of joint purchasing arrangements was discussed early on. Librarians from several Vernon county libraries were present at the organizational meeting, but none signed the bylaws that were drawn up.[5] Why they did not was impossible for me to ascertain. A purely speculative clue, entirely unproven but of conceivable import, comes to light in D.L.S. files. Four years earlier a newly hired, professionally trained librarian at Viroqua became tangled in a multitude of controversies with the library board and others, and was soon replaced by the previous librarian [6] - who apparently made no waves. It seems likely that there was little movement either, and this situation may somewhat account for the reluctance to innovate and for the inward attitude that prevailed in Vernon county library circles during the early years of cooperative effort. Whatever occasional interest was shown from Vernon county always originated from a librarian in one of Vernon's smaller communities. However it was, Vernon county librarians did not participate in the formative discussions between the Association and state officials about the possibility of obtaining recently established LSA funds to develop an area-wide processing center. The Southwest Service Center was proposed in late 1958, and was operational by 1959, funded entirely with federal money. The Center, located in Fennimore in Grant county, near the geographic center of the area, provided ordering, cataloging, and processing services to contracting community libraries, which soon included all the institutions in the five county area. By 1962, after more than two years of successful operation, full funding responsibilities devolved upon local sources. To accomplish the transformation, county-wide commissions sought and obtained county funding, and established a joint Library Board with authority over Center operations. Vernon never established a county-wide organization prerequisite to this stage of participation. To reflect the new arrangement, the name of the Center was changed to the Public Library Service Center of Southwest Wisconsin. Over the years activities of the Center were expanded to include such services as inter-library loan, center resource collection, bookmobile, in-service training, publicity, as well as the primary technical services. By 1974 the Center had achieved full system status with regular county funding on a per capita basis.[7]

By the mid-sixties a similar regional group, the La Crosse Area Library Development project, began operations made possible by LSCA money. Originally Vernon county was a part of this group along with six other counties to the north. But in 1968, when time came for the county boards to agree to assume funding responsibility, Vernon's county board voted no.[8] Local government had decided that the cost of central processing and regional service was not warranted. The exact reason for this decision is not known to me. Conflicting explanations will emerge from data to be developed later, but consider that again a serious conflict was occurring between the librarian and the library board of the Viroqua library. The conflict did not center around the question of regional participation; indeed references to the events found in D.L.S. files indicate that both sides were so bogged down in petty matters that attention was far removed from concerns about development of service.[9] But the mere existence of internal controversy, whatever its nature, suggests an atmosphere of diversion and preoccupation. A very conservative choice in the replacement of the librarian at Viroqua that soon resulted further confirms the existence of a state of mind far removed from planning and innovation. LALD was to evolve into the four-county La Crosse Area library system. And Vernon county's six public libraries were to remain steadfastly committed to independence. In fact Viroqua Public Library was soon to receive a sizable gift enabling it to increase the size of its building considerably. What is the meaning of Vernon county's long record of negative interaction? With this background information in place, I will move to a consideration of county-wide library statistics in an attempt to offer some interpretation of the situation.

For this purpose I will look at the five counties in the Southwest System and Vernon County. I will ordinarily list the SWLS counties in descending order of total population, followed by the figures for Vernon. When total public library resources are measured against population, the following ratios of volumes per capita are obtained:[10]

COUNTY	POPULATION	VOLUMES PER CAPITA
Grant	49,810	1.81
Iowa	19,489	1.54
Lafayette	17,897	.81
Richland	16,559	2.17
Crawford	15,541	2.27
Vernon	24,557	2.91

It would seem that size of the collection might not be the most pertinent measure for rural counties in the midst of ongoing development, except for one fact -- Vernon county has immediately 'jumped out into the lead.' This high rate seems attributable to totals for the five town libraries of DeSoto, Hillsboro, LaFarge, Ontario, and Westby that tend to be higher than totals given for cities and villages of corresponding size in neighboring counties. This trend will be further accentuated in the circulation figures for these Vernon localities. Initially I regarded them with considerable suspicion; but as the same general levels are indicated in Wisconsin Public Library Service Record's going back into the 1950's, I have provisionally accepted them here. If some special interpretation was utilized to augment the statistical report, I was not able to discover what it was; however, the point cannot be made too often that really adequate and reliable library statistics are hard to come by at any level of inquiry. One further example of the need for the interpretative control of data is in order while the data are still simple enough to understand by inspection. The high rates for Richland and Crawford counties are actually reflections of fairly large libraries in Richland Center and Prarie du Chien respectively, while Lafayette's low rate is similarly related to the lack of sizable urban centers.

As a measure of use, a per capita rate of loans was calculated. The results are as follows:

COUNTY	LOANS PER CAPITA
Grant	3.69
Iowa	2.18
Lafayette	2.09
Richland	3.55
Crawford	2.12
Vernon	3.97

While aggregate circulation figures provide only a partial measure of service and library effectiveness, the considerable range of these suggest differences of real importance.

A final basic figure to be offered before sense-making proceeds will be per capita expenditure by county. They are:

COUNTY	EXPENDITURE PER CAPITA
Grant	$2.16
Iowa	$1.34
Lafayette	$1.53
Richland	$3.19
Crawford	$2.74
Vernon	$1.72

Included in rates for the counties of the Southwest System is a per capita system levy of $0.53, provided by county appropriation. The wide variance in the last two sets of figures calls for some sort of summation. Attempting to devise a single combined indicator from these partial measurements of service seems arbitrary and not particularly useful at this point. Rather, an additional breakdown of loans per dollar expenditure offers a good relative measure of efficiency by which to evaluate service performance. This calculation results in a rank order for the SWLS counties identical to the county population order used heretofore.

COUNTY	LOANS PER $1.00 EXPENDITURE
Grant	1.71
Iowa	1.63
Lafayette	1.37
Richland	1.11
Crawford	0.79
Vernon	2.31

As has been apparent all along, Vernon county is an exceptional case, clearly outdistancing its system neighbors in terms of all measures. Its libraries provide the highest use rates at the lowest cost. If the data are reliable, the answer to the opening question is that Vernon county stayed away from two different systems because it already provided substantially better service than similar counties. This contrasts strikingly with the attitude toward library improvement expressed implicitly in the history of Vernon's actions. It also contradicts the judgment of state library and system agents who have continuously sought to strengthen library service through system development in Vernon county. Perhaps one of two opposite conclusions can explain this situation: 1) the figures provided by Vernon county libraries to document their activity cannot be trusted; or 2) the views and efforts of state and system personnel depend upon philosophies and perspectives defined by their positions rather than facts and needs as locally realized. My own view, based mainly on the totally negative character of Vernon's response, is that something is wrong with the figures. A continuous thread of decision linking library, library board, and county board to a position of non-participation suggests political forces little attuned to the needs of long range development and quality service. In this light, the claim that in Vernon county 'more costs less' is further reason for doubt. Data to be offered from the demographic sphere later, while providing no direct insight to the library indicators as presented here, suggest even further reason to feel that Vernon's situation cannot be all that it reports itself to be.

The library indicators of the five counties of the Southwest System, when assessed against each other, reveal that Grant and Iowa perform at substantially higher levels of efficiency, while Grant and Richland generate considerably more use. Crawford county libraries seem to be clearly at the bottom, with a low measure of use at a very high cost of operation. Levels of expenditure seem closely linked to the size of the various urban libraries. Except for Richland, where the high cost of the Richland Center library results in a high measure of circulation, the deduction of the fifty cent per capita cost for System membership brings per capita expenditure to fairly low levels. Grant county's expenditures would then be roughly equivalent to Vernon's, while comparatively more rural counties, such as Lafayette and Iowa, would show local expenditure at or below one dollar per capita. The use level in Grant of 3.69 volumes per capita is fairly high, but falls off to around 2 in Iowa, Lafayette, and Crawford, and at decreasing levels of cost efficiency. Of course these figures fail to measure system benefits, and so a quantitative approach to the primary question of system benefit remains out of reach. Beyond technical services and the resource center collection, the primary input of the SWLS is bookmobile service. Operational since 1968, recently acquiring a second bookmobile enabling bi-monthly rather than monthly circuits, the bookmobile accounts for an annual circulation volume of 55,000 loans, certainly a major addition to rural service. I have not attempted to incorporate these figures into the library indicator for the SWLS counties. But the assumption that system involvement enhances the quality of service of certain library functions is implicit in the very question about Vernon that I have posed. These indicators by themselves convey more confusion than clarity, and raise more questions than they answer, even before the contradictions of the Vernon county data totally confound the situation. Perhaps this attempt to construct library indicators has floundered upon two main difficulties: 1) measures of library activity presently available are insufficiently related to total library service; and 2) equal distribution of library measurements over largely rural populations, when actual distribution of use and cost is urban centered but specifically undiscernable, results in invalid indicators of reality. This last point is doubly troublesome in that a major difficulty in applying a comparative demographic analysis is that the source of study is too narrowly conceived to allow for adequate checks on the conclusions. I suppose that the main insight to be drawn from this is that regardless of the apparent success or failure of the comparative analysis, the need for reliable library data should be the paramount concern of library researchers. With these considerations in mind, I will move to the demographic analysis by rather arbitrarily assigning the various counties a library indicator figure composed of the sum of per capita loan figure and the loan per dollar figure, on the basis that these figures best incorporate a library funding agency's concern for service on the one hand and constraints of funds on the other.

COUNTY	PER CAPITA LOAN		LOAN PER DOLLAR		INDICATOR
Grant	3.69	+	1.71	=	5.40
Iowa	2.18	+	1.63	=	3.81
Lafayette	2.09	+	1.37	=	3.46
Richland	3.55	+	1.11	=	4.66
Crawford	2.12	+	0.79	=	2.91
Vernon	3.97	+	2.31	=	6.28

Choice of demographic comparisons, as previously stated, was made through visual inspection of the multitude of demographic data available, selecting those factors that seemed relevant to explaining library development, as well as presenting a reasonable range of variability so as potentially to account for differences measured. Following is a rudimentary population breakdown of the region.[11] The designation "urban" is defined by the demographers as a population of 2500 or more persons, a conceptualization that seems to me wholly inadequate for the purposes of rural library research, yet an apparently necessary limitation of the present state of affairs.

COUNTY	POPULATION	DENSITY	% URBAN	% RURAL NON-FARM	% FARM
Grant	48,398	42	33%	41%	26%
Iowa	19,306	25	17%	46%	37%
Lafayette	17,456	27	0%	57%	43%
Richland	17,079	29	30%	37%	33%
Crawford	15,252	27	36%	31%	33%
Vernon	24,557	31	15%	46%	39%

This demographic information which seems at first ripe with possible explanation, in actuality bears no systematic relationship to the library data. Grant county's relatively high density and non-farm orientation suggest a foundation for a high level of library use. But Vernon, whose composition is akin to Iowa and Lafayette, with a strong rural-farm orientation, differs substantially from both in the library indicator. Neither the ostensibly high indicator of library performance nor the fact of non-participation in the System is plausibly explained by the data. Similarly, Richland and Crawford counties with the nearly identical demographic composition display quite opposite tendencies in terms of the library indicator. If library development in rural areas does indeed bear a relationship to population distribution and geographic characteristics of population movement, its discovery must await much better measures of population location and movement than the information provided here.

Next I will take a look at income data for the area. The oft-reached conclusion that library development is most closely related to some measure of per capita income, while undoubtedly true on a general level, is so obvious as to be next to useless in illuminating the underlying foundations of development. Therefore it is with some relief that the data here reveal some variation within the general tendency. Furthermore, the data for Vernon begin to develop some serious inconsistencies with respect to its library indicator.

COUNTY	MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME	PER CAPITA INCOME	PER CAPITA GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE
Grant	$8,464	$2,385	$265
Iowa	$8,545	$2,587	$324
Lafayette	$7,734	$2,239	$254
Richland	$7,372	$2,256	$270
Crawford	$6,589	$2,154	$281
Vernon	$6,641	$2,195	$368

Again there is no systematic correspondence. Grant is consistent with its library indicator. And there is a considerable falling off toward the northern counties, including Vernon! But Iowa comes out higher, and Richland lower than the library indicators might have predicted, probably a further reflection of the tendency of key cities to bias library data in an upward direction. The figures on per capita government expenditure are included as an example of the total lack of correlation of a factor that might have been supposed to hold relevance for library development.

For the last group of demographic factors to be investigated I have chosen two that cast very interesting light on the whole confused matter. The median educational attainment of those 25 years and older might be expected to bear a relationship to measures of library performance. The median age, while not nearly so self-evidently meaningful, shows a similarly interesting relationship.

COUNTY	MEDIAN EDUCATION: 25+ YEARS	MEDIAN AGE
Grant	12.1	24.2
Iowa	12.1	27.1
Lafayette	12.1	27.1
Richland	11.4	29
Crawford	10.8	30
Vernon	9.9	34.5

Here at last a trend has emerged, loose and non-definitive to be sure, but certainly reflective of some key factors in determining how a population might regard its libraries. And if one could only disregard the library indicators that have been so extensively discussed, it could provide the beginning of an explanation as to why Vernon county has expressed such disinterest in participating in a library system. For as we move northward over the counties, the educational level drops, the median age increases, the income level (from the previous table) drops, and, with the single problematic exception of Vernon (Richland is not so problematic), the library indicator drops. Even within the context of library indicators as developed it is possible to speculate that the population of Vernon county was satisfied with a level of library service as it was; and that as contemporary standards and goals of library service were made available to rural areas through system development, the system reached its geographic limit at the locked mind set and political attitude of Vernon county.

1. The specific reasons for Vernon's non-participation are tied to the contingencies of the situation as it evolved.
2. But there has finally emerged a set of demographic indicators that at least relate positively to the history of the situation as we know it.

The conclusion that I have reached is highly speculative. Even in its present form, the visits that I never made become minimally essential in confirming judgments gleaned from documents and data. They could begin to help to clear up some of the fundamental doubts I had about the data. They would begin to establish the reality of the land and the people and the libraries that served them.

But even more essential, in another sense, is the job of beginning to tie up the analytic loose ends that hang out from every page of this report: how to measure use; how to measure performance; how to relate population distribution to use; and how to develop indicators free enough of the contingencies of derivation to allow comparisons capable of traversing differences so as to reveal essentials. And yet this investigation leaves persistent doubts that any indicators, no matter how clearly derived or how universal in application, can eliminate the need to understand the unique background of each situation under study.

FOOTNOTES

[1] U.S. Bureau of the Census. County and City Data Book, 1972. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1973. pp. 523-545. All raw demographic data are taken from these pages.

[2] Wisconsin. Legislative Reference Bureau. 1973 Blue Book. Document Sales and Distribution, Madison, Wisconsin, 1973. pp. 662-670.

[3] Wisconsin, Division For Library Services. Wisconsin Library Service Record, 1973. pp. 88-101.

[4] County and City Data Book, 1972.

[5] Division for Library Services - Archival materials. (Files labeled Southwest Wisconsin Library System and LSCA - Public Library Service Center of Southwest Wisconsin.) These files will hitherto be referred to as DLS Files - _____.

[6] DLS Files - Vernon County before 1963.

[7] DLS Files - Southwest Wisconsin Library System (SWLS).

[8] DLS Files - LSCA - LaCrosse Area Library Development.

[9] DLS Files - Vernon County since 1963.

[10] Wisconsin Library Service Record, 1973. pp. 72-73, 76-79, 80-83. All raw library data are taken from statistics found on these pages. I have calculated all ratios by hand.

[11[County and City Data Book, 1972.

INDICATORS OF LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT: LATIN AMERICA*

Robert V. Williams

I. INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

As a student of comparative librarianship my interest in the field arises out of two basic questions: first, what factors in society cause library development? and, secondly, what does the development of libraries cause in society? This paper is a tentative, first step in the direction of trying to answer these two questions for one part of the world, Latin America. Latin America was chosen as a starting point in my investigation of these two questions because I am a little more familiar with the language and history of this area than any other area in the world. It also seems to possess adequate differences in library development, as well as social, economic, cultural and political development, to permit a fruitful test of some of my hypotheses.

I say "a tentative first step" because at no time in this investigation have I dealt with the central aspect of the two questions posed, namely causality. Instead, I am dealing only with the relationships of library development to various factors of societal development and hoping that this investigation will lead me to the formulation of other hypotheses that will deal directly with the problem of causality. The relationships, or correlation analysis, approach is a commonly employed one in a number of the social sciences where the state of knowledge about causality is quite low. I think we would all agree, and without embarrassment, that Library Science (and, particularly, that area of study within it called comparative librarianship) is in such a state.

This problem was pointed out in Edward R. Johnson's 1971 study of Latin American library development and it still holds true. In many ways this investigation is a direct descendent of the Johnson study and one that seeks to enlarge on it. In that paper Johnson used the Guttman scalogram as one way of analyzing Latin American library development, but he also indicated the potential value of using the correlation technique as a method of determining relationships between library development and societal development.[1]

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In attempting to deal with the relationships between library development and the other aspects of societal development, the researcher is always faced with the problem of economy of time and effort. Thus, one of the central objectives in this investigation is to find a few (one or, at most, two or three) library-related factors that can be used as valid indicators of library development in general. If so, then the future researcher should be able to gather data on only those few factors and use these for other investigations of library development and societal development.

In summary, this paper addresses two problems:

(1) How well do several different library development factors relate to the social, economic, cultural,and political development factors in Latin America?

(2) Is there one library development indicator (out of several potential library indicators) that will serve as a valid indicator of the state of library development in Latin America?

I have chosen the following indicators of library development as the ones to be examined:

(A) Number of books per capita in national, university, school, special and public libraries. And, where the data are available I also use total books in all (sum of the above types of libraries) non-private libraries.

(B) Expenditures per capita on all of the types of libraries named in A.

(C) Number of book titles published, per 1,000 population

(D) Number of full-time-equivalent faculty, per one million population, in university-level library education programs.

These factors (a total of 35 different "indicators") were chosen because it is my view that they represent a variety of different kinds of measures of library development. I had also hoped to be able to use other indicators, such as number of university-level trained librarians, number of university-level library education programs, and library circulation per capita, but these were not available for the Latin American countries. I had problems enough gathering data on the indicators listed in A, B, C and D above!

II. HYPOTHESES, ASSUMPTIONS AND DEFINITIONS

Before listing the hypotheses, let me explain why I have chosen the four that I propose to test. In his pioneering work on library development in the U.S., The Geography of Reading (1937), Louis Round Wilson identified several variables that he considered to be the causes of library development (as well as the lack of library development) in this country. Wilson's central causal variable was the economic ability of the states and regions studied. He shows what is almost a linear relationship between the economic ability (as measured by a composite of several variables, one of which is per capita income) of the states and the development of their public libraries.[2] Wilson also identifies a high relationship between the development of the various communications media (telephones, radios, motion picture theatres, bookstores, newspapers, etc.) and library development. He says it concisely: "Where libraries exist, these media for the communication of ideas exist, also; where libraries are lacking these are likewise relatively lacking."[3]

Wilson's study ranks as a pioneering work in pointing the way towards an understanding of the causes of library development. (Although not usually considered to be a comparative study, his analysis of the six distinctly different geographical regions of the U.S. shows that they are, in many ways, also six different societies, a conclusion that should earn him an attentive moment or two from the student of comparative librarianship.) Therefore, I have turned to Wilson for my hypotheses. I also expect to turn to him again at the end of the paper for some comparisons of my findings with his on other variables such as the relationship of library development to education, urbanization, and literacy.

The hypotheses are:

(1) That the library development indicators will be significantly and positively related to per capita GNP. Further, that this relationship will be a stronger one than any other single library/societal relationship.

(2) That the library development indicators will be significantly and positively related to the communications indicators (newspaper circulation per capita, radios per capita, etc.).

(3) That the library development indicators will be significantly and positively related to the various indicators of educational development (such as literacy, number of years of schooling completed, etc.).

(4) That the library development indicator called "number of books in libraries" will show the highest positive relationship (of all the potential library development indicators) with per capita GNP, communications and education indicators.

In this study a significant relationship is defined as a correlation significant at the .05 level.

Several assumptions are critical to the study. The first assumption is that the data collected on the library development indicators and the social, economic, cultural and political indicators are both reliable and valid for the various aspects of Latin America. No tests of reliability or validity have been imposed on the data used in this investigation. The second assumption is that the statistical techniques used to determine correlation (the correlation coefficient formula) and significance (the Student's T test) are valid in determining relationships between variables and level of significance.

III. METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

One of the most critical problems facing the student of comparative librarianship is the lack of quantifiable data on library development. It has also been a problem in this study. As indicated earlier, I would like to have been able to test several other potential indicators of library development, but the lack of data on those indicators made it impossible. Even for the four groups of factors I eventually settled on for testing, I still have a sizable percentage of missing data (approx. 60% of the total that needed to be collected for a complete library indicators data set). Fortunately, these missing data have not caused me to exclude from the analysis any single one of the 25 Latin American countries chosen for the analysis. It has, however, necessitated the omission of certain variables from the analysis, as will be specified later.

Two procedures were employed in the collection of the data. The first procedure involved the collection of data on a variety of social, political, economic, and cultural indicators of Latin American development. A data base in machine-readable form was available in the Yale University World Data Analysis Program, an extensive data set on some 300 social, economic, political and cultural variables for 136 countries. Data on most of the 300 variables for most of the 136 countries have also been recorded for different periods of time (1950, 1955, 1960, and 1965). The Latin American countries were a part of the data set, though not complete. Approximately 25% of the data for the 77 variables I selected for analysis were missing. Despite this problem the Yale compilation seemed to be the best answer to my need for societal information that could be correlated with indicators of library development.

The next procedure was to locate data on the library development indicators that I wanted to analyze. Since I could not locate any ready-made machine-readable file on library indicators, I decided to compile my own and convert it to machine readable form. That form of information was essential to my wish to use the computer's power to run correlations. I quickly determined that the single best source of information was the series of UNESCO Statistical Yearbooks.[5] Using this source I compiled most of the data used in the analysis. The remaining data were compiled from various sources, notably publications of the Organization of American States. (A complete list of these sources, though not provided here, is available on inquiry). These figures were then converted from raw data to ratios, so that they could be suitably correlated with the societal data, already stated in ratios.

With the data collected on both the societal and the library indicators, I was ready to test the strength of their relationships, using the standard method, correlation analysis. It is important to emphasize once again, however, that lack of full and complete information severely limits the generalizability of any conclusions.

The substantial amount of missing data in both data sets required some way of "evening out" or equating the number of observations for each correlation. "Bivariate subsample method for missing data," meets this need by calculating correlations only where there are observations for both variables in the same countries in the entire data set. This method of analysis is entirely acceptable and should not substantially skew the correlations computed. It does, however, substantially reduce the number of observations on which calculations are made, affecting generalizability of findings.

A total of 121 variables (shown in the appended list) to be correlated meant a potential total of 14,641 correlations. The significance of these correlations was evaluated by use of the Student's T test of significance, usually considered the most appropriate technique when the number of observations is less than 30. No correlations were made for observations that are fewer than 3 for each pair of variables. These operations were performed on the computer utilizing a standard statistical package called DSTAT-2. Full information on this program is found in the manuals published by the University of Wisconsin.[6]

Once the computer analysis was completed I then began the intellectual task of analyzing the correlations that were identified as significant at the .05 level, whether negative or positive.

IV. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

In a situation like this where so many correlations had been calculated, I needed some economical procedure for analyzing the results. Although the computer provided me with correlation of all variables with all other variables, my prime purpose was to investigate the relationships between the library development indicators and the societal development indicators. I therefore emphasized these relationships in my analysis and gave only passing attention to inter-correlations of the societal factors.

The appended list of the 121 variables gives some indication of the kinds of correlations derived. In choosing library variables, I purposefully included the same variable at a number of successive times in order to determine whether the relationships remained consistent over the years. As a consequence, a large number of library variables were included. Not surprisingly, the correlations of some of the library variables with other library variables were not consistently at the .05 level of significance. That is, the library development indicators do not necessarily show strong positive relationships with each other. It appears accurate to note that, in general, the library variables are more positively than negatively related; however, they are not, by any means, all positive correlations. In general, within each of the four groups of library factors, the factors seem to correlate significantly, but the missing data problem prevents any final conclusion on this tendency.

In terms of the single library variable that correlates most frequently with most of the other library variables, one would have to choose "Books per capita in All Libraries" (#'s 83, 89, 95, 101) for all of the years examined. This is followed closely by "Books

Variable Numbers and Names	78.	79.	80.	81.	82.	83.	84.	85.	86.	87.	88.	89.	90.	91.	92.	93.	94.	95.	96.	97.	98.	99.	100.	101.	102.	103.	*106.	*109.	*112.	*114.	115.	116.	117.	118.	119.	120.	121.	122.
78. Bks. NL,55																																						
79. " . UL,55																																						
80. " . SL,55																																						
81. " . SP,55			996																																			
82. " . PL,55			.826																																			
83. " . All,55			.942	967																																		
84. " . NL,60	.708				702																																	
85. " . UL,60					.848		.798																															
86. " . SL,60																																						
87. " . SP,60							.693																															
88. " . PL,60					.868																																	
89. " . All,60							.796			.716	.706																											
90. " . NL,65	.888						.778			.993	.603	.883																										
91. " . UL,65							.598	.955			.605																											
92. " . SL,65					.957				.875		.763	.976																										
93. " . SP,65					.843				.882						.646																							
94. " . PL,65					.949		.724					.929	.980		.737																							
95. " . All,65	.956				.934					.971					.831	.791																						
96. " . NL,70							.840	910					.817				.771																					
97. " . UL,70					.832		.799			.998		.841	.984		.901	.746	.893		.784																			
98. " . SL,70					.924					.994	.780	.993			.940	.718	.916	.705		.739																		
99. " . SP,70									986				.833		.924	.927		.864	.862																			
100. " . PL,70								.836	.997			.966				716		.691	.579																			
101. " . All,70					.882		.787			.910		.892				.696		.786	.777				.994															
102. Exp. NL,65									.949						.903																							
103. " . UL,65					.995		.890	.996			.975				.886					—																		
106.* " . PL,65																																						
109.* " . UL,70																																						
112.* " . PL,70									—	.999									-.756																			
114.*Pub.Ti.,50	—								.948																			—	—									
115. " " .,55					.786	.966	.654				.599	.898															—			.962								
116. " " .,60						—								.799	.824			.759						.784						.938	.660							
117. " " .,65														.628																.901	.773	.680						
118. " " .,70	.793			.877			.561		.690						.591			.780					.622	.891		.836				.880	.834	.812	.544					
119. FTE Fac.,50							.591										.527		.722	930		.909																
120. " " ,60					.874		.719			.880		.917	.933				.873			.990			.907								.782							
121. " " ,65																							992								.704	.800						
122. " " ,70					.980																	.963									—							

TABLE I: Intercorrelations of all Library Related Variables
All correlations listed are significant at the .05 level.
* = variables not calculated because number of observations less than 5.
—— = correlations significant at .05 level but whose counts matrix was less than 5.

per capita in University libraries" (#'s 79, 85, 91, 97) and "Books per capita in Public libraries" (#'s 82, 88, 94, 100) for all of the years examined. The number of correlations for these variables, by year of the data, are not consistent but do seem to average about the same total number of correlations throughout. Again, however, the missing data problem may be particularly operative here since the two factors, "expenditures on libraries" and "F.T.E. faculty" have substantially fewer observations than the "books in libraries" factor. The addition of data on either of the groups might greatly alter the number of significant correlations. (See Table I)

In regard to the degree of relationships among the various similar groupings of societal indicators some of the same generalizations made for the library indicators also hold true. In general, however, these relationships are more consistent than was observed among the library factors. Since no in-depth analysis has been made of the inter-correlations among these groups I am reluctant to make any statement about their predictive powers in relation to each other. In one instance the relationship between newspapers and radios per capita (variables 24-31) and "percent of the population living in cities over 100,000" (variables 9-11), it was observed that all these correlations were significant at the .05 level. This may give some indication that for the library indicators the missing data problem is particularly severe since the number of observations for the societal indicators is generally much higher than for the library indicators. Relationships among the societal indicators (variables 2-77) have not been explored further in this paper since this was not the problem to be investigated. However, anyone interested in this problem should consult the analysis provided in the Yale handbooks.

Evidence for the first hypothesis, significant positive relationships between GNP per capita and the library variables, indicates no uniform trend. The nearest to a clear relationship, for any one group of the library variables, is found in the number of book titles published. Of a total of 20 possible correlations (4 "GNP per capita" variables and 5 "book titles published" variables) there are 14 significant and positive correlations. In general, the various years tend to correlate with each other, but there is a slight tendency for the book titles published variables to correlate more frequently and slightly higher with the GNP per capita of an earlier five-year period.

The relationships of the other library variables to GNP per capita are very weak. Correlations with "books in university libraries" are the most frequently occurring (5 out of 16) followed by books in

Variable Numbers and Names	GNP Per Capita 1950 59.	GNP Per Capita 1955 60.	GNP Per Capita 1960 61.	GNP Per Capita 1965 62.	GNP Growth Rates 1950-1965 63.
78. Bks. NL,55		.738	.680		-.653
79. " . UL,55		.900	.762		
80. " . SL,55					
81. " . SP,55					
82. " . PL,55					
83. " . All,55					
84. " . NL,60					
85. " . UL,60				.824	
86. " . SL,60	.878	.861	.836	.763	
87. " . SP,60					
88. " . PL,60					
89. " . All,60					
90. " . NL,65					
91. " . UL,65				.733	.601
92. " . SL,65					
93. " . SP,65					
94. " . PL,65					
95. " . All,65					
96. " . NL,70					
97. " . UL,70					
98. " . SL,70					.707
99. " . SP,70					
100. " . PL,70					
101. " . All,70					
102. Exp. NL,65					
103. " . UL,65	.842	.896	.920	.966	.896
106.• " . PL,65					
109.• " . UL,70				.929	
112.• " . PL,70					
114.•Pub.Ti.,50					
115. " " .,55					
116. " " .,60					
117. " " .,65					
118. " " .,70					
119. FTE Fac,50					
120. " " ,60					
121. " " ,65					
122. " " ,70					

TABLE II: Correlations for GNP Per Capita Data and Library Related Variables
All correlations listed are significant at the .05 level.
• = variables not calculated because number of observations less than 5.
____ = correlations significant at .05 level but whose counts matrix was less than 5.

school libraries (4 out of 16 possible). Even the correlations within years were not uniform. Interestingly, the variable "per capita expenditures on university libraries 1965" (#103) appears to be significantly correlated with all of the GNP per capita variables. I have no idea why this alone, would be true. There are no significant correlations with university level F.T.E. faculty in library education programs.

The first hypothesis can be accepted only for one group of the library variables, namely "book titles published per 1,000 population." Other single variables can be considered as slight evidence for accepting the hypothesis but overall the hypothesis must be rejected. See Table II for a complete display of all the correlations relating to this hypothesis.

The second hypothesis stated that the various communications variables would correlate significantly and positively with the library variables. Of a total of 665 possible correlations (19 communications variables times 35 library variables) only 130 (or one sixth) were positively significant at the .05 level, while 16 were negatively significant at the .05 level. It seems obvious that we cannot, on the basis of these results, accept the hypothesis.

Even though the hypothesis as a unit has to be rejected, there appears to be some value in analyzing some of the individual correlations. For example, variables 16-19, "number of telephones per 1,000 population," and variables 28-31, "radios per 1,000 population," have a slightly higher number of correlations with the library variables. I had expected correlations with newspapers to be higher in number. These relationships are, however, so scattered that no clear pattern emerges. "Book titles published" appears to be fairly strongly related to the telephones, newspapers and radios groups of variables but the year to year correlations are not consistent. (See Table III).

The third hypothesis stated a relationship between the library indicators and the various educational indicators such as literacy, number of years of schooling completed and so forth. These are listed as variables 36-55. The analysis shows that approximately 100 correlations, out of a possible 540, were significant. Despite the necessity of rejecting this hypothesis as a unit, there is again some value in looking more closely at some of the findings within this group. Surprisingly, literacy rates do not correlate significantly any large percentage of the time, as was hypothesized. Given the rather common assumption that literacy is the most vital precondition to library development this is a very surprising finding. Even more surprising is the fact that "book titles published" (#'s 114-118) does not correlate with literacy rates as frequently or as highly as one might expect. I found that "students enrolled in higher education" (variables 44-47) were moderately correlated (approximately 30% of the time), with the library variables. As would be expected, the variables related to university libraries correlated rather frequently with the higher education variables. And, book titles published correlated significantly and positively about 85% of the time, indicating a fairly strong relationship with the higher education variables.

In general, the findings for this hypothesis are puzzling. In some instances we find some relatively strong--and expectable--relationships among the library and educational variables, while on other occasions we find that some of the most common assumptions of researchers are not borne out at all. While the temptation is to ascribe these differences to the missing data problem, I am not entirely comfortable with that conclusion. For example, the number of observations for the "book titles published" variables are relatively high yet we get entirely different results when they are correlated with the "literacy rates" and "higher education" variables. (See Table IV).

The fourth hypothesis, that the "number of books in libraries" variables would be the best library indicator, was to be largely accepted or rejected on the basis of the findings for hypotheses one, two and three. Instead, the evidence indicates that if any one single group of variables might be considered representative it should be "book titles published." It is doubtful, however, whether "book titles published" could be considered as a suitable "substitute indicator" for library factors since the intercorrelations between the two are not very frequent. (See Table I). I would prefer to withhold a firm conclusion until I could obtain a more complete data set on all of my series of library-related variables and perform the appropriate analyses again. At the moment I can only state that it does not appear to be possible to substitute any one single library variable as a valid indicator for all other library indicators.

One of the implications of this tentative conclusion is that even if you had data on, for example, one type of library in Latin America you would still not be able to safely predict the growth or decline in any other type of Latin American library. Similarly, you would not be able to predict per capita expenditures on libraries, number of book titles published or F.T.E. faculty involved in library education by having data on any other single library indicator.

Variable Numbers and Names	Telep. 1950 16.	Telep. 1955 17.	Telep. 1960 18.	Telep. 1965 19.	Dom. Let. 1950 20.	Dom. Let. 1955 21.	Dom. Let. 1960 22.	Dom. Let. 1965 23.	Newspapers 1950 24.	Newspapers 1955 25.	Newspapers 1960 26.	Newspapers 1965 27.	Radios 1950 28.	Radios 1955 29.	Radios 1960 30.	Radios 1965 31.	Telev. 1950 32.	Telev. 1955 33.	Telev. 1960 34.	Telev. 1965 36.
78. Bks. NL,55		.681	.627		—	—		-.997	.776	.706	.709									
79. " . UL,55					—	—						.927								
80. " . SL,55		.745			—	—											—			
81. " . SP,55		.810																		
82. " . PL,55		.812	.850	.919																
83. " . All,55																	—			
84. " . NL,60									508	.677	575		.463	.454		.496	.964	.960		
85. " . UL,60			604	.837									.682	.747		.877	–			
86. " . SL,60	982	.852	764	.616	—	.977	951	741	849	.734	648									
87. " . SP,60																				
88. " . PL,60					.962															
89. " . All,60									.698							.869	—	.998		
90. " . NL,65																.692				
91. " . UL,65		.653	.707	.865									.752	.566		.661				
92. " . SL,65		.652																		
93. " . SP,65																				
94. " . PL,65					—				.610	.663			.536			.821				
95. " . All,65					—															
96. " . NL,70										.660										
97. " . UL,70																				
98. " . SL,70																				
99. " . SP,70					—	—				.781	.678	.912	.750		.626	.691				
100. " . PL,70	—				.980															
101. " . All,70									.646	.709										
102. Exp. NL,65								—											.799	
103. " . UL,65		.760	.814	.958			—	—						.908						.793
106.* " . PL,65							—	—											—	—
109.* " . UL,70																				
112.* " . PL,70						—	—													
114.*Pub.Ti.,50		.838	.821	.766	.996				.806	.739	.737									
115. " " .,55		.557	.551						.554					.506						
116. " " .,60	.901	.660	.595	.583	.988				.681	.604	.562									
117. " " .,65		.540	.524										.636	.675						
118. " " .,70	.895	.732	.698	.643						.775	.669	.546	.634	.711	.482	.499				.641
119. FTE Fac,50		.420	.406							.706	.580	.756	.760	.576	.646	.668	.876	.916	.588	.606
120. " " ,60																.637				
121. " " ,65				.997												.715				
122. " " ,70					—							.833								

TABLE III: Correlations for Communications Variables and Library Related Variables
All correlations listed are significant at the .05 level.
* = variables not calculated because number of observations less than 5.
—— = correlations significant at .05 level but whose counts matrix was less than 5.

Variable Numbers and Names	Literacy 1950 36.	Literacy 1955 37.	Literacy 1960 38.	Literacy 1965 39.	Sch. Enrlm. 1950 40.	Sch. Enrlm. 1955 41.	Sch. Enrlm. 1960 42.	Sch. Enrlm. 1965 43.	High. Ed. 1950 44.	High. Ed. 1955 45.	High. Ed. 1960 46.	High. Ed. 1965 47.
78. Bks. NL,55				.955		.711	.694		.664	.702	.739	.660
79. " . UL,55				.949								
80. " . SL,55		—		—								
81. " . SP,55		—										
82. " . PL,55	.751	—			.765	.839	.713	.762				
83. " . All,55	—	—		—								
84. " . NL,60	.538			.658	.573	.600	.620	.673				
85. " . UL,60		—						.633	.817	.908	.966	.971
86. " . SL,60		—							.742	.824	.867	.789
87. " . SP,60		—										.727
88. " . PL,60												
89. " . All,60					.700	.649		.693				
90. " . NL,65		—										.546
91. " . UL,65		—			.540	.613	.538	.555	.939	.946	.926	.915
92. " . SL,65	.608	—										
93. " . SP,65												
94. " . PL,65												
95. " . All,65												
96. " . NL,70								.570				
97. " . UL,70		—										
98. " . SL,70		—										
99. " . SP,70									.824	.796	.712	.569
100. " . PL,70												
101. " . All,70	.563	—								.686		
102. Exp. NL,65				.772	.839	.753	.741					
103. " . UL,65				.912		.714			.839	.902	.958	.964
106.* " . PL,65											.976	—
109.* " . UL,70				—							.876	.891
112.* " . PL,70									-.946	-.904	-.842	-.819
114.*Pub.Ti.,50		—	.752						.802	.849	.800	.740
115. " " .,55	.799	—	.823		.676	.642	.692	.626		.578	.618	.734
116. " " .,60		—			.637	.598				.652	.662	.682
117. " " .,65	.637	—			.534					.551	.564	.669
118. " " .,70	.711	—	.813	.677	.551	.595	.622	.547	.633	.741	.744	.747
119. FTE Fac,50									.577	.459		
120. " " ,60												
121. " " ,65												
122. " " ,70												

TABLE IV: Correlations for Education Variables and Library Related Variables
All correlations listed are significant at the .05 level.
* = variables not calculated because number of observations less than 5.
___ = correlations significant at .05 level but whose counts matrix was less than 5.

Significant relationships among the library factors have been identified, but they are not consistent or sufficiently strong as to provide predictive power. An example of the kinds of results required is illustrated by the "book titles published" variables (#'s 114-118). All four of these variables were significantly and positively correlated. These variables were also the ones on which I was able to gather the most data (i.e., number of observations) for any of the library variables. (See Table I). Until I have adequate data for the library variables it will not be possible to select one library variable as a satisfactory indicator for all the various aspects of library development in Latin America.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Having rejected all four of my hypotheses and having issued numerous caveats about the missing data problem, it hardly seems possible to have any conclusions. The conclusions that I do have are not, however, related to the hypotheses but instead to the problem addressed by the investigation itself. First, even though this initial attempt has not given me any solid leads to hypotheses of causality, it has stimulated and changed my way of thinking about library development. It has been valuable to me to think of library development in terms of variables and strengths of relationships among these variables, whether library-related or society-related. I now see that these relationships can be tested and examined in a variety of ways not evident to me before I made the study. Secondly, even though this study can be rightly termed a "failure," in terms of definitive findings, I think I can correct mistakes and go on from here. It may not be possible to obtain a complete set of data, but I think it can be improved beyond this version. I also see that I should not try to deal with all of the Latin American countries at one time in one correlation, since part of the problem may be that this causes a regressing toward the mean and hence the washing out of significant relationships. It is also now obvious to me that I had too many variables to deal with in an initial investigation of this type. This has complicated the analysis and caused me to summarize data that require more detailed and specific analysis.

Even though the overall results in terms of precise knowledge about library development are discouraging, I am nevertheless encouraged by some of the things I have seen during the first attempt. It obviously pains me to have to reject--even tentatively--the two hypotheses taken from Louis Round Wilson. They were and are part of my first stumbling efforts at the formulation of a theory of library development. Perhaps better data and more detailed and appropriate analysis will yet result in their acceptance.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Edward R. Johnson, "Library Development in Latin America, A Scalogram," In: William L. Williamson, ed., Assistance to Libraries in Developing Nations; Papers on Comparative Studies. Madison, Wisconsin,University of Wisconsin, Library School, 1971, p. 23.

[2] Louis Round Wilson, The Geography of Reading.... Chicago, University of Chicago Press and the American Library Association, 1938, pp. 414-416.

[3] Ibid., p. 266

[4] An explanation (and samples of the data) of the Yale Program is given in Charles L. Taylor and Michael C. Hudson, World Handbook of Political and Social Indicators, 2nd edition, New Haven, Yale University Press, 1972.

[5] UNESCO Statistical Yearbooks, 1963-1972. Paris, UNESCO, 1963-1974.

[6] DSTAT2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation; reference manual for the 1108. First revision. Academic Computing Center, The University of Wisconsin-Madison, September 1973. Mimeographed. (Part of the STATJOB series of manuals.)

NUMBERS AND NAMES OF VARIABLES

Var. No.	Variable Name
2	Population Growth Rates, First Period (1950-1955)
3	Population Growth Rates, Second Period (1955-1960)
4	Population Growth Rates, Third Period (1960-1965)
5	Density (People per Square Kilometer), 1950
6	Density (People per Square Kilometer), 1955
7	Density (People per Square Kilometer), 1960
8	Density (People per Square Kilometer), 1965
9	Percentage of the Population Living in Cities of 100,000 or More Population, 1960 (Homer Hoyt)
10	Percentage of the Population Living in Cities of 100,000 or More Population, 1965 (United Nations)
11	Percentage of the Population Living in Cities of 100,000 or More Population, 1950 (Kingsley Davis)
12	Percentage of Population Living in Cities of 20,000 or More Population, 1950
13	Percentage of Population Living in Cities of 20,000 or More Population, 1955
14	Percentage of Population Living in Cities of 20,000 or More Population, 1960
15	Percentage of the Population Living in Cities of 20,000 or More Population, 1965
16	Number of Telephones per 1,000 Population, 1950
17	Number of Telephones per 1,000 Population, 1955
18	Number of Telephones per 1,000 Population, 1960
19	Number of Telephones per 1,000 Population, 1965
20	Total Domestic Lettermail per Capita, 1950
21	Total Domestic Lettermail per Capita, 1955
22	Total Domestic Lettermail per Capita, 1960
23	Total Domestic Lettermail per Capita, 1965
24	Newspapers per 1,000 Population, 1950
25	Newspapers per 1,000 Population, 1955
26	Newspapers per 1,000 Population, 1960
27	Newspapers per 1,000 Population, 1965
28	Radios per 1,000 Population, 1950
29	Radios per 1,000 Population, 1955
30	Radios per 1,000 Population, 1960
31	Radios per 1,000 Population, 1965
32	Televisions per 1,000 Population, 1950
33	Televisions per 1,000 Population, 1955
34	Televisions per 1,000 Population, 1960
35	Televisions per 1,000 Population, 1965

Var. No.	Variable Name
36	Literacy Rates, 1950
37	Literacy Rates, 1955
38	Literacy Rates, 1960
39	Literacy Rates, 1965
40	Unadjusted School Enrollment Ratio, 1950
41	Unadjusted School Enrollment Ratio, 1955
42	Unadjusted School Enrollment Ratio, 1960
43	Unadjusted School Enrollment Ratio, 1965
44	Students in Higher Education (Third Level) per One Million Population, 1950
45	Students in Higher Education (Third Level) per One Million Population, 1955
46	Students in Higher Education (Third Level) per One Million Population, 1960
47	Students in Higher Education (Third Level) per One Million Population, 1965
48	Per Cent Population Aged 25 Years and Over with Less than Four Years of Education, Earlier Date
49	Per Cent Population Aged 25 Years and Over with Less than Four Years of Education, Later Date
50	Per Cent Population Aged 25 Years and Over having Completed Four Years or More Education at the First Level, Earlier Date
51	Per Cent Population Aged 25 Years and Over having Completed Four Years or More Education at the First Level, Later Date
52	Per Cent Population Aged 25 Years and Over having Completed Four Years or More Education at the Second Level, Earlier Date
53	Per Cent Population Aged 25 Years and Over having Completed Four Years or More Education at the Second Level, Later Date
54	Per Cent Population Aged 25 Years or Over having Completed Four Years or More Education at the Third Level, Earlier Date
55	Per Cent Population Aged 25 Years or Over having Completed Four Years or More Education at the Third Level, Later Date
56	Christian Community as a Percent of the Total Population
57	Protestant Community as a Percent of the Total Population
58	Catholic Community as a Percent of the Total Population
59	Gross National Product per Capita (in U.S. Dollars), 1950
60	Gross National Product per Capita (in U.S. Dollars), 1955
61	Gross National Product per Capita (in U.S. Dollars), 1960
62	Gross National Product per Capita (in U.S. Dollars), 1965
63	Total Gross National Product per Capita Growth Rates, Annual Averages, 1950-1965
64	Total Number of Current Scientific and Technical Serials Published
65	Percentage Contribution to World Total of Scientific Authors

Var. No.	Variable Name
66	General Government Consumption Expenditure as a Percentage of Gross National Product, 1950
67	General Government Consumption Expenditure as a Percentage of Gross National Product, 1960
68	General Government Expenditure as a Percentage of Gross National Product, 1965
69	Physicians per One Million Population, 1950
70	Physicians per One Million Population, 1955
71	Physicians per One Million Population, 1960
72	Physicians per One Million Population, 1965
73	Educational Expenditure per Capita (in U.S. Dollars), 1965
74	Total Educational Expenditure as a Percentage of Gross National Product, 1965
75	Health Expenditure per Capita, 1965 (in U.S. Dollars)
76	Total Health Expenditure as a Percentage of Gross National Product, 1965
77	Percentage of the Population Aged 20 Years and Over Voting in the Last Election
78	Books Per Capita in National Libraries, 1955 (n = 10)
79	" " " " University " " (n = 9)
80	" " " " School " " (n = 7)
81	" " " " Special " " (n = 5)
82	" " " " Public " " (n = 10)
83	" " " " All " " (n = 4)
84	" " " " National " 1960 (n = 19)
85	" " " " University " " (n = 11)
86	" " " " School " " (n = 11)
87	" " " " Special " " (n = 10)
88	" " " " Public " " (n = 19)
89	" " " " All " " (n = 9)
90	" " " " National " 1965 (n = 14)
91	" " " " University " " (n = 17)
92	" " " " School " " (n = 13)
93	" " " " Special " " (n = 11)
94	" " " " Public " " (n = 14)
95	" " " " All " " (n = 12)
96	" " " " National " 1970 (n = 13)
97	" " " " University " " (n = 14)
98	" " " " School " " (n = 11)
99	" " " " Special " " (n = 12)
100	" " " " Public " " (n = 14)
101	" " " " All " " (n = 11)

Var. No.	Variable name
102	Per capita expenditures on National libraries, 1965 (n = 7)
103	" " " " University " " (n = 9)
104	" " " " School " " [Not analyzed]
105	" " " " Special " " [Not analyzed]
106	" " " " Public " " (n = 7)
107	" " " " All " " [Not analyzed]
108	" " " " National " 1970 [Not analyzed]
109	" " " " University " " (n = 5)
110	" " " " School " " [Not analyzed]
111	" " " " Special " " [Not analyzed]
112	" " " " Public " " (n = 6)
113	" " " " All " " [Not analyzed]
114	Book titles pubished per 1,000 population, 1950 (n = 10)
115	" " " " " " 1955 (n = 13)
116	" " " " " " 1960 (n = 15)
117	" " " " " " 1965 (n = 14)
118	" " " " " " 1970 (n = 18)
119	Full-time-equivalent university-level library education faculty, per 1,000,000 population, 1950 (n=25)
120	Full-time-equivalent university-level library education faculty, per 1,000,000 population, 1960 (n=13)
121	Full-time-equivalent university-level library education faculty, per 1,000,000 population, 1965 (n=11)
122	Full-time-equivalent university-level library education faculty, per 1,000,000 population, 1970 (n=7)

A COMPARISON OF JAMAICAN AND PUERTO RICAN LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT

Daniel Flores Durán

This paper reviews the progress of two Caribbean island-states, Jamaica and Puerto Rico, and their provision of library services, particularly since the end of World War II. These two political entities are particularly apt choices for comparison for they were the colonial possessions of two different nations with somewhat different traditions of library development, they occupy somewhat similar geographical settings, and they are, to a somewhat parallel extent, masters of their own political fates though still strongly influenced by political, social, and economic forces from the former governing power. A look at the development of library services promises some insights into the effects of different governmental traditions. A review of the history and demographic characteristics of each island will help to set the stage for a summary of their library development.

JAMAICA THE ISLAND

Jamaica is a self-governing territory within the British Commonwealth of Nations, situated ninety miles from the eastern extremity of Cuba. It has been described as "a land of hill and gully," with mountains traversing the country like a backbone through its center. It belongs to the group of four largest islands in the Caribbean known as the Greater Antilles. It was discovered by Columbus in 1494 and was occupied by the Spanish from 1509 to 1655 and subsequently by the British from 1655 to 1962.

Racially, 75 percent of its population is of African descent (a result of early slave importation) and approximately 15 percent of its people are of mixed Afro-European heritage. Its 1972 population was estimated at being a little over 1.95 million people with a density of 452 people per square mile.[1] English is the official language and it has been estimated that 90 percent of the population is literate, although serious questions have been raised about the actual percentage of functionally literate adult inhabitants. By 1967, it was estimated that the GNP per capita was $460.

In terms of political independence, Jamaica has been one of the most advanced Caribbean territories. Adult suffrage was achieved in 1944, and by 1959 Jamaica had obtained internal self-government within the framework of the Federation of the West Indies. Independence within the British Commonwealth was granted in 1962 and since then Jamaica has moved dramatically along broad social, economic and political fronts. It has diversified its economy and, although tourism and agriculture continue to bring a significant share of the national income, it has stressed the development of new industries (particularly bauxite mining). In comparison to other more-developed nations, Jamaica is not a rich country, but does have a bright economic promise. The average Jamaican appears to feel a sense of national spirit unparalleled in the other Caribbean areas. This island country of 4,411 square miles is aptly characterized by its motto of "Out of Many One People."

PUERTO RICO, THE AMERICAN COMMONWEALTH

Ceded to the United States in 1898 as part of the aftermath of the Spanish-American War, Puerto Rico has been considered as a "free and associated state" but also an undernourished stepchild of the United States. It is smaller in area than Jamaica, ninety-five miles long and thirty-five miles wide, and has an estimated 1972 population of 2.9 million people inhabiting 3,435 square miles. Although considered one of the prime tourist havens, it is currently struggling with a series of economic, social, political, and educational problems. Approximately one-half of the population is bilingual (Spanish-English speaking) and the illiteracy rate in 1972 was estimated as being 11 percent for those ten years or older. Although compulsory education was instituted in 1899, large numbers of the rural and urban population are still considered functionally illiterate in English, Spanish, or both languages. With an overall population density of 800 per square mile, it is one of the most heavily populated islands in the Caribbean.

Consisting of eight senatorial districts, Puerto Rico is neither state nor territory. Its unique status was conceived by the 81st Congress in 1950, and was subsequently ratified by an island-wide plebiscite in 1951. Denied the right to vote for U.S. elections on the island, but not liable for taxation under the U.S. maxim of "No Taxation without Representation," Puerto Rico has concentrated on increasing its revenue-earning capacity to bring about needed social and economic improvements. This singular state of Puerto Rican affairs is further complicated by the fact that almost as many Puerto Ricans reside in the continental United States as on the island. With these sketchy outlines of Puerto Rico and Jamaica, we will proceed to the development of library services in these two Caribbean islands.

EARLY JAMAICAN LIBRARIES AND LIBRARY PLANNING

Educational programs for the masses were virtually non-existent during the first three centuries of recorded Jamaican history. It was not until after the emancipation of the slaves in 1834 that missionary societies planted the seed of an organized educational system. Since 1973, when the Jamaican government abolished school fees, schooling has been free from elementary to university institutions supported by government aid. But the prior centuries of educational neglect provide the background against which Jamaican library development must be viewed.

Following a familiar pattern of early United States and British library development, the earliest libraries consisted of commercial, subscription, and literary libraries available to those members of the affluent minority who could afford such a library service. [2] The earliest of these libraries were established in Kingston during the late 1790's and soon spread to other Jamaican towns able to support such ventures. By the first half of the twentieth century, almost every one of the thirteen parishes (the local government division) could claim at one time or another to have had a subscription library. But the problems of financing circulating libraries from member subscriptions spelled the demise of most of these early libraries. Yet, these early libraries indicated the interest of at least a segment of the Jamaican population in having access to some type of library. One of the few libraries able to survive the erosion of time was the Institute of Jamaica.

Founded in 1879 for the encouragement of literature, science, and art, the Institute of Jamaica was primarily designed "to establish and maintain an institution comprising a library, reading rooms and museum..." for the good of the people. Under the able direction of Frank Cundall who administered the library from 1891 to 1937, a particularly fine collection of West Indiana was developed. In his address to the 2nd International Library Conference held in London in 1897, Cundall reported that "for many years the library of the Institute was expected to play the double part of a reference library for the whole island and a popular lending library both for Kingston and the parishes."[3] Offering eight classes of membership ranging from honorary to juvenile (for those aged 13-16), the Institute was able to claim a membership of 3,169 in 1931 out of a total island population of little over a million. Circulation for 1932 was 44,847, including over 31,000 fiction and slightly over 2,000 juvenile loans from a book stock of approximately 30,000. The Institute relied on the government as the main source of revenue and abolished its subscription fees in 1959. The Institute also circulated deposit collections, offered free postal service to individuals, and was instrumental in encouraging and aiding the early voluntary libraries developing throughout Jamaica. By 1944 the Institute was circulating 208,000 books to 8,000 of the island's population of 1.2 million-- an active, though elitist, service.

Despite the impetus given to early voluntary libraries by the Institute in the 1940's it was unable to develop a comprehensive island-wide library service due to its limited financial resources. At this time the Institute libraries consisted of five separate collections: the West India Reference Library (WIRL), now housed in a modern building constructed in 1966, which publishes bibliographies, offers abstracting, indexing, and photocopying services of its holdings; the General Library of the Institute, which until recent times was the most important library in Jamaica and still maintains lending services to 7,400 registered members from its book stock of 30,000 volumes; the Science Museum Library established in 1944 with holdings of about 9,000 books and an equal number of pamphlets, journals and reports; and the two Junior Centres of the Institute which were the first public libraries for children and continue to offer a range of cultural programs to some 8,000 registered members who can select from the combined stock of approximately 26,000 books.[4] Although it was reported in The Handbook of Jamaica that the general library of the Institute would be ultimately added to the Headquarters Library of the Jamaica Library Service to form a Central Lending Library for Kingston and St. Andrew, it has not yet come to pass.[5] The importance of the Institute cannot be underplayed in the role it served as a catalyzing force for public library development.

THE JAMAICA LIBRARY SERVICE, ITS EVOLUTION

In 1972 the Jamaican Library Service celebrated its first twenty-one years of existence with the publication of a commemorative volume entitled the Jamaica Library Service: 21 Years of Progress in Pictures, 1948-1969.[6] The Jamaica Library Service (JLS) did not spring full-grown as a spontaneous precursor of nationhood. It was nurtured and embraced by early planning efforts designed to promote the island's development.[7]

Prior to World War II, one regional library survey of the Caribbean and a national library plan had laid the groundwork for the JLS and the development of rural library services. The need for adequate library service and cooperation in the Caribbean area was first urged by Ernest Savage in his Carnegie-sponsored survey released in 1934.[8] Savage documented the existing deplorable situation of Caribbean library services, particularly in the rural areas, in the early 1930's and made recommendations for library development in the area. He encountered an almost universal pattern of stagnation and decay in a multiplicity of independent library units throughout the Caribbean area, with particular reference to the prevalent subscription libraries. Referring to the achievements and prospects of Jamaican library development, he found the Institute of Jamaica to be carrying a heavy burden. He suggested that the Institute popularize the general library, develop a system of traveling libraries, increase its supply of books, establish deposit collections, and better organize its juvenile departments, reforms later carried out by the Jamaica Library Service.[9] Although his recommendations did result in Carnegie grants of $30,000 for a centralized library service for the United States Virgin Islands and $70,000 for a second centralized system of library development for the British West Indies which helped to establish the Eastern Caribbean Regional Library Scheme, Jamaica profited only indirectly. The Carnegie Corporation was the moving force behind the first two centralized library systems in the Caribbean area, but Jamaica had to wait ten more years for another overseas consultant to consider its problems.

Prior to 1938, the Institute of Jamaica offered the only public library service (still based on a fee schedule) available to this island. Until the establishment of the Manchester Free Library in 1938, Jamaica almost entirely lacked public libraries in the sense of an open collection of general material available free to the public. The impetus for a national plan of action for library development came in 1942 when the British Council established an office in Kingston to promote a program of cultural activities. The British Council's first representative, Hugh Paget, secured a grant from the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund to enlist the services of Nora Bateson, Director of Libraries, Nova Scotia, to survey the existing library facilities and make recommendations. Lawrence Thompson [10] and C. Hentschel [11] have written extensively on the far-reaching effects of the Bateson Library Plan for Jamaica.[12]

The Bateson survey resulted in a carefully thought-out proposal for adequate library service to the population of the largest Caribbean island inhabited by English-speaking people. As the cost of implementing the plan was beyond the capacity of the local government, Hugh Paget successfully petitioned the British Council for a Challenge grant to encourage the formation of libraries in the parishes with an eye to the eventual development of an island-wide service.

It was Paget's belief that:

> There can be no question that an adequate library service for Jamaica must be the very life blood of any system of community education which may be devised and that the system should be planned throughout with the reference to the library service available and the library system should be based upon the educational needs of the country.[13]

The Challenge grant would provide ₤7,000 a year for ten years on condition that the Jamaican government would contribute ₤10,000 a year for the same period. The Jamaican government accepted the challenge and within a short time the Bateson plan was put into effect. Parish libraries were established in four parishes with the aid of the Council and Jamaican monies. The Council also offered valuable technical assistance and training opportunities to the Jamaicans operating the parish libraries. Rural library development in Jamaica came of age with the infusion of British Council and Jamaican financial support.

In 1948 the Jamaica Library Law was enacted and the Jamaica Library Service was established with the Jamaica Library Board as the Statutory Body responsible for the development of public libraries. For the next seven years the Jamaica Library Service (JLS) would have a fixed income of ₤17,000. As the JLS's action plan took form:

> The entire island was organized as one integrated library unit by incorporating into the structure all the existing Free Libraries and by using their stock and facilities to form the nucleus of the branch libraries for the central service. Priority was given to augmenting and upgrading the bookstock of these free libraries and to introducing a uniform system of operation.[14]

The five existing parish libraries were absorbed by the JLS, but despite the creation of this central authority the individual parochial boards were expected to meet the operating costs of the parish libraries including staff salaries. The JLS supplied the books, provided three-quarters of the capital expenditures on buildings, and was responsible for technical services. In 1952, the Service took over administration of the Schools Library Service. As the JLS developed into a true island-wide service, increasing numbers of Jamaicans were offered scholarships and opportunities for studying abroad (primarily England and Canada) and were also encouraged to attend the Eastern Caribbean Library School developed by Sidney Hocking in Trinidad. The Jamaica Library Association was also formed in 1949 and developed a growing program of lectures, seminars, and conferences for the entire JLS staff, professional, sub-professional, and volunteer.

After the departure in 1955 of Sidney Hocking, the last British Council Librarian, the JLS was operated entirely by local staff under the direction of Joyce Robinson. That same year, the Jamaican Government more than doubled its support of the JLS. Additional parish libraries were opened and the first branch libraries begun.[15]

Within fifteen years of the creation of the JLS an island-wide service had been established, lending 1.3 million books a year to over 145,000 members through its 165 service points including parish libraries, branches, and mobile library service.[16] (See tables). The Schools Library Service during the same period maintained circulating libraries in each of more than 700 primary schools with five mobile units visiting each school once a term. In 1958 a new building was opened to house the JLS Headquarters and the Kingston and St. Andrew Parish Library. By 1960 the Jamaican Government had assumed full responsibility for the JLS and the total expenditures for library development increased.[17] J. P. Danton has remarked on the phenomenal growth of the JLS:

> By almost any criterion one chooses to apply, the development and the present accomplishments, service, and standards of the J.L.S., developed in less than two decades, and in a very tight economy, constitute a phenomenal record. There are many countries of greater wealth and far longer independent history which cannot point to a free public library service, quantitatively as extensive or qualitatively as good.[18]

The JLS Headquarters also maintains a central union catalog, coordinates an island-wide interlibrary loan service, and operates as a centralized system for a variety of technical services for the entire island. It is also active in preparing bibliographies, develops and disseminates exhibits, conducts its own training programs, and maintains relationships with the academic, special, governmental, and research libraries in addition to administering the growing Schools Library Service. There are problems which still must be dealt with in improving the delivery of rural library services despite the strong progress made since 1948.

JAMAICA LIBRARY SERVICE POINTS
TYPE AND NUMBER

Year	Parish Libraries	Branches	Book Centers	Bookmobile Stops	Total Service Points (excl. Schs.)
1948	7	0	0	0	7
1951	12	2	22	0	36
1959	13	5	115	4	137
1961	13	6	138	8	165
1969	13	46	139	64	262
1973	13	70	121	113	317

Source: Warmington, et al., Jamaica Library Service (Kingston, Jamaica, 1972), pp. 17-21, p. 363, and Robinson, "Rural Library Development in Jamaica," UNESCO Bulletin for Libraries 27:4 (July-August 1973), pp. 213-218.

PUERTO RICAN LIBRARIES
TYPE AND NUMBER

Year	Public Libraries	Bookmobiles	Rural Libraries	Housing Projects	Totals
1950	3	4	0	0	7
1960	7	8	189	27	231
1967-68	42	8	371	25	456

Source: Rosa, "Training and Manpower Needs of Puerto Rican Libraries," Libri 19:2 (1969), p. 111; Modesto, Plan en Desarrollo Para Organizar Un Programa de Accion en el Servicio de Bibliotecas de Puerto Rico (in: Pan American Union. Estudios Bibliotecarios No. 8, Washington, D.C., 1968), p. 23; Puerto Rico, Dept. of Education, Puerto Rico State Plan for the Further Extension of Public Library Services to Rural Areas (Hato Rey, Puerto Rico, 1963), Exhibits B, C, and D, unpaged.

Note: The rural libraries consist of "traveling libraries" housed in specially constructed wooden boxes varying in size from 130-160 volumes. They are set up in community centers, homes of individuals, or local school rooms. They are similar to the book centers existing in Jamaica. The housing projects listed contain small "libraries" which are not staffed by librarians. The housing project libraries are small reading rooms with a limited collection of books and periodicals which are rotated frequently.

Total book stock is still low, amounting to about .5 volumes per capita.[19] In the future, the goal is to upgrade service by establishing a minimum of 3 books per reader over the next five years for a minimum of 1 book per head of population.[20] Out of a total of 405 paid staff members in 1970, only 35 could be considered "qualified librarians" in either British or American terms, a number increased to 80 by 1974. The majority of the branches and all of the book centers are staffed by volunteers, although the JLS does send supervisory personnel to these rural service points for in-service training.

One of the principal aims of the Jamaica Library Association was achieved in 1971 with the creation of a Graduate Library School at the University of the West Indies--Mona Campus.[21] The Danton report (1968) reviewed the need for such a program and recommended the establishment of the department. The Department now includes a three year undergraduate program and a one year graduate program. What is significant is that the JLS and the Jamaica Library Association considered the establishment of this new department as crucial both to improve the delivery of library services to the island population and to convince the Government of the professional nature of the library development program.

With the launching of the National Adult Literacy Campaign in 1972, under the guidance of Joyce Robinson who headed the JLS during its formative years, it is expected that the JLS will generate a renewed emphasis on the role of libraries.

PUERTO RICO LIBRARY BEGINNINGS

The beginnings of libraries in Puerto Rico extend far back into the Spanish colonial period. Early religious libraries were founded by the Dominicans and other Catholic Orders. Although the earliest of these libraries dates back to 1652, the true flowering of libraries in San Juan and the other principal cities did not begin until the early 1800's.[22] The most significant library of the Spanish colonial period was the Real Sociedad Económico de Amigos del Pais which had absorbed the collections of the Royal Academy of Belles Lettres and a number of private collections. This library opened its doors to Puerto Ricans of all social classes and operated from 1863 to 1899. In parallel to Jamaica, a plethora of smaller libraries temporarily existed and faded away in the larger cities of Puerto Rico.

During the late 19th Century, a small number of so-called "bibliotecas municipales" developed in the cities of Mayaguez, San Juan, and Ponce. The Biblioteca Municipal of Mayaguez opened its doors in 1874 and is generally recognized as the first true public library in Puerto Rico. This library grew and prospered, beginning with a collection of 879 books in 1874 and reaching its peak of 4,000 volumes in 1913. The entire collection and other smaller book collections were subsequently destroyed in the earthquake of 1918.[23]

A similar Biblioteca Municipal was opened in San Juan in 1880 by a group of friends contributing parts of their individual collections to form a municipal library much as Franklin's Junto a century earlier. This municipal library began with a collection of 500 volumes and by 1910 boasted a collection of more than 6,000 volumes. Similar libraries were begun in Ponce, Santurce, and other Puerto Rican municipalities. Many of these early proto-libraries were non-circulating and limited use of their facilities to men of character and sound moral standing; the rabble and masses were not invited into these exclusive literary and library associations. Some of the smaller towns did follow the example of the big cities and develop reading programs for those who could read.

Following the American occupation in 1898, four more public libraries were opened. Two of these were exclusively Spanish, one was largely English (the Pedagogical Library of the Commissioner of Education) and the fourth was the Carnegie Library of San Juan, opened in 1916 with a collection including both Spanish and English books and a $100,000 endowment.

The Carnegie Library had originally been the Insular Library of San Juan. It was changed officially to the Carnegie Library after the $100,000 endowment enabled the construction of a new building. The library was administered by a board of trustees appointed by the Governor of Puerto Rico. The next public library to be established was the Biblioteca Hostos in Santurce (1940) followed by the Agripino Roig Library in Humacao. The first bookmobile service was established in 1948 (the Biblioteca Rodante de San Juan).

When Arthur Gropp investigated the municipal libraries of Puerto Rico prior to WW II he found only 2,500 volumes in Ponce's Biblioteca Municipal and about 9,000 in San Juan's Biblioteca Municipal. He could neither obtain nor estimate the holdings of the Mayaguez library.[24] With the exception of the Carnegie Library of San Juan, he could report less than 20,000 books available to the two million Puerto Ricans, and these meager holdings were largely in the "metropolitan" centers with less than 20 percent of the population. Gropp characterized the collections as consisting of historical, religious, and literary titles of classic vintage. He was unable to find any professionally trained librarian outside of the San Juan area. It is curious to note how Gropp's survey differs from the earlier survey of Savage in 1934.[25] Savage reflects on the Carnegie Library collection of "about 50,000 volumes" and concludes that its bilingual collection is in excellent condition, well selected, and "is the best public library in the West Indian area, especially for general reference."[26] Savage also reports that just about every municipality of importance in the island has a library of largely Spanish materials, which are very popular and usually found in municipal buildings.[27] Savage concludes his Puerto Rican remarks with the recommendation that the Carnegie Library be placed directly under the Commissioner of Education and that a coordinated branch library service be developed which will:

(a) place the insular library at the head of it;

(b) replace the Municipal Libraries by insular branches, supported partly by the Government and by the municipalities;

(c) send the traveling library into every village;

(d) co-ordinate all operations.[28]

We will see how these recommendations finally came to pass almost twenty-five years after the fact.

During the 1930's and 40's the Carnegie Library of San Juan did develop a parcel-post delivery service for books, distributed a limited number of traveling libraries, and exhibited a few other attributes of a state library. But the University of Puerto Rico Library at Rio Piedras, established in 1924, had resources that better qualified it than the Carnegie Library to serve as a de-facto state library. It had a large and outstanding collection of materials including some 95,000 volumes by 1946, cataloged on the Dewey system. It had a large Puerto Rican collection, the largest on the island, and had the largest professionally trained library staff on the island.

The growth of a true state library system was summarized in 1969 by Maria Elena Cardona of the University of Puerto Rico:

> The development of library services in Puerto Rico can be said to have taken impetus in the last twenty years, particularly after the creation of the Section of Library Services within the Department of Instruction. Since that time (1953), this department took charge of the planning and development of public library services in addition to the school library services. During the first years after

> it was created the Section of Library Services concentrated its efforts in the organization of public libraries throughout the island: libraries at the municipal level, prison libraries, hospital libraries, rural libraries, bookmobiles and rural traveling libraries.[29]

Public and school libraries in Puerto Rico are under the jurisdiction of the Department of Instruction of Puerto Rico, with a Division of Library Services responsible for the development of library services. As Perez de Rosa has noted:

> The organization of public libraries in Puerto Rico was a gradual process....Public libraries enjoyed a rapid increase, while the drive for school library programs was slow. Many factors account for this situation: lack of funds, great need for professional and non-professional librarians, and the absence of a reasonable salary scale to attract librarians and make them wish to stay.... Public libraries have taken advantage of federal aid to promote organization of libraries and enlarge their collections. The problem of personnel is the same in the school library program. The highest percentage of non-professional librarians is found in the public libraries.[30]

Perez de Rosa goes on to analyze the manpower needs for Puerto Rican libraries and strongly suggests the need for a Graduate Library School at the university level. Such a school now exists.

There is a Puerto Rican professional organization called the Sociedad de Bibliotecarios de Puerto Rico, established in 1961. To a lesser extent than the Jamaican Library Association, it has sponsored workshops, conferences, and brief talks and lectures. It does have an irregularly appearing Bulletin, and in 1973 prepared and published a recent guide to libraries.[31] Two major aims are identified by the Sociedad: to gain greater recognition of the profession and to establish a library school in Puerto Rico. One of these aims has been realized, the Library School. It is difficult to estimate the impact of the Sociedad in realizing this aim.

In regard to the apparent growth of library service points in Puerto Rico, it is difficult to analyze the growth of public libraries as there are too few sources of information to make a judgment. The rural libraries, (see tables) are in reality a number of traveling libraries which are housed in wooden boxes. The housing-project libraries are situated in the "new housing" of the barrios and apparently are not visited on any regular basis by any professional or para-professional library staff. As for the eight bookmobiles, they must serve a rural population of approximately one million individuals. It is difficult and perhaps unwise to generalize more than already attempted from the scarce information available.

CONCLUSIONS

Library development in Jamaica and Puerto Rico has not followed a parallel course. Jamaica has developed an island-wide system of library services which has been twenty-five years in the making. Puerto Rico can be characterized as a late starter. Jamaica has had the benefit of joint British Council and local governmental planning in developing its library services. Puerto Rico appears to have followed the American pattern of locally developed libraries and support and as a result has progressed in a slow and faltering manner. An all-Jamaican library staff administers the JLS, part of which has extensive administrative experience. The same cannot be said of Puerto Rico although the establishment of the Graduate Library School may help to remedy the situation. Jamaican public and school libraries have developed alongside each other and have long shared close relationships with other types of libraries such as the Institute of Jamaica and the University of the West Indies. All in all, despite the surface similarities of the two states, Jamaica has developed its library services earlier and more extensively than has Puerto Rico, although, with U.S. federal support, the commonwealth has begun to make substantial progress in recent years.

The patterns of development in the two states seem to demonstrate, at least in these instances, the importance and the crucial influence of the character of outside forces in situations without strong indigenous library traditions. In Jamaica, libraries were limited for many years to a pattern of service to an elite, a pattern that changed somewhat as the British Council and other agencies such as UNESCO made their impact felt. In Puerto Rico, the dominant power was one in which public libraries had traditionally developed if--and only if--local demands were evident. The lack of any indigenous demand in the predominantly Spanish culture of Puerto Rico coupled with the general neglect of most aspects of Puerto Rican society by the dominant power meant that virtually no public library development occurred. Only when local political power grew and when federal funds and programs, instituted in the continental states, were made available did the systematic development of library services for Puerto Rico begin to take effect. Although neither of the dominant colonial powers can take unqualified pride in its record, the British Commonwealth and its representatives have so far served the interests of Jamaican libraries better than the corresponding agencies of the United States have served Puerto Rico.

No conclusive generalization can be drawn from these examples; yet they do seem to suggest the importance of substantial leadership and considerable support in the development of library services. Dependence upon local initiative alone, particularly in a poor society, will not suffice for the establishment of library service.

FOOTNOTES

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[13] Quoted: by Hentschel, p. 11.

[14] Robinson, "Jamaica, Libraries in," p. 180.

[15] Warmington, Jamaica Library Service.

[16] Hentschel, "The Role of the British Council...," p. 14.

[17] Warmington, Jamaica Library Service, p. 18.

[18] Danton, Jamaica: Library Development, p. 15.

[19] Danton, Jamaica: Library Service, p. 16; and Warmington, Jamaica Library Service, p. 363.

[20] Robert V. Vaughn, comp., International Library Conference Jamaica, April 24-29, 1972: A Brief Review of Presentations, Resolutions Adopted and Citations of References to Virgin Islands Librarianship (Christiansted, St. Croix, Virgin Islands: n p., 1972), p. 18. Resolution proposed by Joyce L. Robinson, Director, Jamaica Library Service.

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